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The elementary school principalship : an historical evolution.

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THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALSHIP: AN HISTORICAL EVOLUTION

A Dissertation Presented

by

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To fight a bull when you are not scared is nothing. And to not fight a bull when you are scared is nothing. But to fight a bull when you are scared - that is something.

(Anonymous Bullfighter, Peters and Austin 1985, p. 490)

It has been a life long dream to pursue a Doctoral Degree. Ever since I was a little girl I had a plan. In the middle of my plan, I decided to get married and have two children, to move three times, and to change jobs three times on the way to my Doctoral Degree. This commitment to my Doctoral Degree began ten years ago after obtaining two Masters Degrees. One more was obtained within this ten year period. All these years have been filled with tremendous elation, depression, frustration, and sacrifice by myself and my family. Each member of my family helped me to believe in myself and to continue to pursue this degree together with parenting, and working full time. I have met many other people, friends and professional acquaintances, on the way to this degree who have bolstered my confidence and supported my goal. To each person whom I met along the way, I am grateful.

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ABSTRACT

THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALSHIP: AN HISTORICAL EVOLUTION

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The Principalship has received increased attention since the 1983 report, A Nation At Risk: The Imperative For Educational Reform and the 1986 Carnegie report, A Nation Prepared: Teachers For The Twenty-First Century. These reports challenged the Principal to become a strong, effective leader for school reform. The challenge called for the Principal to become a change agent, to affect the culture and climate of a school, to empower others, and to motivate staff and students. Emphasis on leadership suggests the potential of this position. The Principalship has not always been a position of leadership. The evolution of the Principalship is traced from the first system of public education documented in the United States, in Massachusetts, in the mid-seventeenth century to its growth into the twentieth century. During the twentieth century, the Principalship sustained itself through World War I, the Depression, World War II, the radical sixties and seventies,

and through the reform minded eighties and nineties. The evolutionary stages, School Master, Head Teacher, Teaching Principal, Building Principal and Supervising Principal set the stage for present curriculum supervision, vision maker, "building based management", and climate and culture caretaker. The Principalship did not develop by any plan, rather it emerged in response to population growth, grading, and administrative requirements.

The Principalship's evolution is cited from primary source materials, a survey and interview of Principals, the National Association of Elementary School Principals, and leading educators. It is projected that the role of the Principalship in the twenty-first century will be influenced by the commitment of citizenry for public education, preparatory programs offered by universities and principal organizations, potential of the individuals who will become principals, and the reform efforts undertaken toward excellence in public education.

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RATIONALE AND CONTEXT FOR THIS STUDY

1.1 Background/Problem Statement

Effective schools are the result of the activities of effective principals.

(Hughes 1987, 3).

The decade of the 1980s was one of hope for the future of America's public schools. There has been a determination among government, educators, and citizens, to restore schools to a position of respect and prominence. This determination has led to the creation of national commissions and studies whose reports have received much public attention. One subset of these studies revealed a consensus among practitioners and researchers that the Principal is central to excellence in schools (The Role of the Principal in Effective Schools, 1989: 5). The Principal was cited as the ingredient most likely to effect change (Fullan, 1983, 1985; Hord, Rutherford, Huling-Austin & Hall, 1987; Manasse, 1985; Stedman, 1987; Sarason, 1971).

In A Nation at Risk (1983: 32), it was clearly stated that Principals must play a crucial leadership role in the development of school and community support for reform. This identification of the Principal as school leader has, in turn, identified him/her as responsible for the effectiveness of a school: the climate, inter-relationships of personnel, curriculum, student achievement, and

responsiveness of the school to the challenges set before it.

Advancing the call for a leadership role for Principals requires knowledge about Principals, their jobs, and their challenges. Research findings on the activities of Principals have clashed with many textbook descriptions and preconceptions of the Principalship. One thing is definite: the Principalship has changed dramatically over the years as has the list of responsibilities delegated to the public school arena (The Role of The Principal In Effective Schools, 1989: 12).

Major changes effecting schools began in the mid-nineteenth century. Industrialization characterized the time. Immigrants from Europe poured into America. Technology was developing rapidly. In rural America the typical school continued to be a one room building in which one teacher taught all subjects to students at all levels. Cities and towns grew with industrialization; school enrollments, staff size, and physical plant grew in tandem. Though staff size increased, typically teachers still had only a short course of preparation (Otto & Sanders, 1964: 341). The Principalship role began to emerge at this time in response to the evolving environment (Goldman, 1966: 2). The position started as "Head Teacher" with certain clerical and administrative tasks (Otto & Sanders, 1964: 339). Through the nineteenth century head teachers were progressively freed from teaching duties to carry out ever

increasing administrative/clerical responsibilities. The Head Teacher position did not emerge with special status in public school administration until the beginning of the twentieth century. Still, the position continued to be one of a teaching principal. In 1926, an Ohio study by J.C. Morrison reported that the typical Head Teacher spent 52% of the average day teaching (Otto & Sanders, 1964: 339).

The 1920s and 1930s witnessed the formation of a full-time job titled "Principal" and categorized as managerial. The job description prepared by the newly formed National Organization of Elementary School Principals defined managerial as clerical, generalized control, inspectorial, and organizational. The managerial role was oriented toward the operation of a school like a business. The Principal was perceived as a technician in education. The Depression of the 1930s brought about many studies of educational processes; interest began to focus on aspects of school administration, specifically human relations and the organization of schools as institutions. Specific studies concerning theories of leadership did not present themselves formally until the 1950s (Goldman, 1966).

The Principalship in American education today has evolved to include the Principal as manager and as instructional leader (Goldman, 1966; Smith & Andrews, 1989). Goldman defines manager as chief disciplinarian, provider of guidance and counseling, overseer of attendance, overseer of student-teacher relationships, student activities, office

duties, overall school planning, and school budgeting. Goldman defines a leader as one who influences others in a certain direction as he\she seeks solutions to mutual problems (Goldman, 1966: 89). Smith and Andrews (1989: 45) define an instructional leader as a resource provider for interpersonal relations, an instructional resource for curriculum improvements, an effective communicator and a visible force within the school whether it be in the halls, classrooms or cafeteria.

The trend in recent times is for the Principal to balance both leadership and management. The Principal's job description entails leadership of the entire building, inclusive of people, programs, and physical plant (Blumberg, 1987). It is the Principal who makes known what is important, who sets the tone. A Principal

> ...learns the job by doing it, never sure that the job is being done well. More artist than scientist, the principal works - through trial and error, intuition and experience - to make sense of the role and to lead others through a precarious institution (Lieberman & Miller, 1984, p. 71).

1.2 Purpose of the Study

The role of Principal is vital to the reform movement in education as outlined by A Nation Prepared: Teachers For The 21st Century (1986). Will today's Principalship role meet the evolving needs of the 1990s and of the twenty-first century? The roots of the present lie deep in the past. A major challenge to the present is to avoid the mistakes of

the past in order to position ourselves for the future. Studying the past allows us to view patterns and techniques, some more successful, others less successful. In addition, the history of education provides an opportunity to regain a passion for ideas and innovations. As history is created, individuals who dare to dream stand out. Change in education is seen, not so much as new or unusual, but as evolutionary and continuous. The past reveals those individuals who were gifted with a vision and who worked to create a reality out of that vision. Inspiration provided by past Principals revitalizes, in the twentieth century Principal, the inspiration felt about education, "...inspired to teaching by a private vision and a public challenge" (Hoffman, 1981: 303).

The present call for leadership in education is representative of the call for leadership in past ages. The inspirational individuals and their drive to succeed enable present educators to study success and failure in leadership efforts.

> Leaders have a significant role in creating the state of mind that is society. They can serve as symbols of the moral unity of the society. They can express the values that hold society together. Most important, they can conceive and articulate goals that lift people out of their petty preoccupations, carry them above the conflicts that tear a society apart and unite them in the pursuit of objectives worthy of their best efforts (Lewis, 1989: 241).

The goal of this dissertation will be to trace the evolution of the Elementary School Principalship from the

early nineteenth century to the present in order to provide a basis upon which to project educational directions for the future. The study seeks, further, to research historically the Principalship: job responsibility and the individuals who held that position through the years. Change has been a constant element but where has it led us? Michael Fullan quotes (1982: 20):

> The fact is that a lot of things have changed in a century, and a lot of well-meaning people have devoted themselves to improving...but the end result was another example of the more things change, the more they remain the same.

It is hoped that this study can provide a peek into the evolution of leadership so that educational change will be set in a meaningful context.

1.3 Methodology

The methodology for this study will be that of an historical chronology organized into three periods of time:

The Principalship

early 19th century - 1920	evolutionary concept of head teacher
1920 - 1960	evolutionary concept of manager
1960 - present	evolutionary concept of instructional leader

This study will offer an analysis of primary source material from the Boston Public Schools, State Bulletins

from various states citing the role of Elementary School Principals, The National Association of Elementary Principals, and The National Education Association's Department of Elementary School Principals. Secondary source material from such sources as Paul Revere Pierce, the United States Office of Education, J. Cayce Morrison, and a variety of leadership publications, journals, and books will be utilized. Questions to be researched will include: What were the job responsibilities and what was the preparation of principals as the position evolved? What traits were sought and characterized individuals who held the position? How has the principalship evolved in gender? How has leadership responsibility evolved in time? What important guides does history provide that enable us to predict future direction of the position?

Historical research requires the interpretation of data. The chronology of facts provides the basis for interpretation of them. Current research cites the Principal as a strong emerging leader for educational reform. This researcher will analyze the position of Principal in light of the past and in light of current preparation and duties for the role of leader. This researcher will then speculate on the evolving leadership role in the next century. Primary source material will provide first hand accounts of school department decisions, expectations of individuals filling the role of principal, and the evolution of the job according to the needs of the

changing and growing public school system. Secondary source material will provide interpretations of the Principalship role by authors reflecting on the past. Both source material types will provide rich data from which to understand the times and circumstances, patterns and relationships which have led to the role of the Elementary School Principal today.

1.4 Significance of the Study

The Carnegie Commission released its report on the state of American Education in 1986. The report called for numerous changes including an emphasis on strong and effective leadership for school improvement. The role of Principal is just now evolving toward that of an instructional leader. As an instructional leader, the Principal guides his/her staff toward instructional practices which will produce a higher standard of student achievement. The instructional leader's job is to bring about this change in an effective manner that honors the entire school community.

As an analysis of the historical foundation for this emerging role, this study will illuminate the degree to which these new aspects of the Principalship are grounded in the role's past. The study will further provide a basis for the sound speculation about the needs and opportunities of the Principal's role in the twenty-first century.

We hold the pointer to the words, the numbers, the alphabet.
Love for another generation.
Shelter of hope for another generation,
Life for our children.
(Tillie Olsen, "Utterance", 1977)

1.5 Review of the Literature

> We are living in the "time of the parenthesis," a very confused and confusing period between the Industrial Age and the Information Age, a time when great societal changes are forcing reform in every existing institution, especially in education. (Nalsbitt, 1982)

Literature relevant to this study is about the history of public education. Of specific interest to this dissertation is the evolution of the role of Principal in public education, from its formulation in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries to its evolving role from the mid-nineteenth century to the present. This review will examine materials along an historical timeline, inclusive of books, articles from professional journals, primary source material from the Boston Public School System, and a survey and interview with practicing Principals. Organized information documenting the evolution of the position of Principalship is sparse and much of the documentation must be pieced together to form a coherent whole.

The first real system of public education documented in the United States was in Massachusetts in the middle of the seventeenth century. Several sources used record the bits and pieces of the origination of that system. Most of these source materials used are articles published in the National Elementary Principals Association Journal. The Association,

formed in 1921, published a monthly journal originally called the Bulletin of the Department of Elementary Principals. This Journal provided the first professional source of information for Principals by Principals. The monthly Bulletins were, then, compiled into yearbooks. These yearbooks provide the most valuable source of information documenting the early years of the Principalship as they revealed the trends and challenges of the position through the writings of Principals throughout the United States. The articles published in the monthly journals included historical perspectives, such as Roy A. Crouch's stages of the Elementary Principalship cited in the Seventh Yearbook (April 1928), Arthur S. Gist's editing of a series of articles in the Fifth Yearbook (1926) including Crouch's "The Status of the Elementary School Principal", and J. Cayce Morrison's Tenth Yearbook article on the development of early public school education and the status of staff. A major source utilized to document the rise of public school education is the Chronology of the Boston Public Schools (1912) prepared by the Finance Committee of the City of Boston. The Chronology is based upon Wightman's Annals of the Primary Schools, school documents, and school committee minutes. Other sources utilized to document the early years of public education were the Normal Instructor (1898), forerunner of the Instructor which continues to be published, Education (1904-1905), Education An International Magazine (1880), which included Barnas Sears'

account of the progress of public school education during the fifty years preceding the year 1881, The School Principal by Samuel Goldman (1966), Principals What They Do And Who They Are by Gilbert R. Weldy (1979).

The sources utilized to document the rise of public education do not conflict, but mirror one another, each adding pieces of information to supply a more complete picture. The actual rise of the position called Principal is documented in a sketchy fashion. Only one source completely covers the evolution of the Principalship, Paul Revere Pierce's The Origin and Development of the Public School Principalship (1935). No other one book or article found fully describes that evolution. Each source used cites aspects of the evolution or makes reference to a period of time. The literature describes the early years of public education as institutions set up for training for the ministry. "Free" schools, the first required public institutions, did not appear until the end of the seventeenth century. William Reavis, Paul Revere Pierce, and Edward Stullken's work, The Elementary School Its Organization and Administration (1931) cited the Boston "Common School" as the first recorded public elementary school serving both girls and boys.

It wasn't until the creation of the Superintendency in 1851, that the hiring of professionals other than teachers was considered in most public school districts. Aaron

Gove's article appearing in Education (Volume 19, May 1899) cites the creation of the Superintendency as the beginning of the centralization of public school systems. This event led to the need for a head teacher to communicate to the Superintendent. The Superintendent was responsible, in these times, for evaluation of teachers, discipline, and administrative work. Sources used are in agreement that the position of Principal was not included in any plans for public school education. Both Arthur Gist (1924) and J. Cayce Morrison (1931) suggested that the first use of the title "Principal" was hard to trace. Evidence of the title appeared in records of city annual reports (Albany, 1858). Reports such as the one recorded from Albany, New York and cited by Morrison (1931) suggest that the title and position of Principal had been in use since 1844 when the Albany Public School System first organized.

By far the most complete source utilized documenting the evolution of the Principalship and the major work found specifically written as such is Paul Revere Pierce's The Origin and Development of the Public School Principalship (1935). This work covered the early rise of the position, but concluded in 1935. Pierce researched the annals of many major city school systems to piece together the evolution of the Principalship. He, too, concluded that no actual date was apparent for the origination of the title "Principal." However, Pierce cited many factors leading to the development of the public school Principalship. Pierce

suggested that the term "development" was key since the position was not created as such, but evolved through various stages until it became recognizable in the mid-nineteenth century. It is Crouch, however, who identified stages of this development in public education beginning with the School Master, then proceeding to the Head Teacher, the Teaching Principal, the Building Principal, and to the final stage of the Supervising Principal.

Pierce (1931) provided the setting for the development of the position during the mid-nineteenth century. He outlined factors such as the rapid growth of cities, the grading of schools, the consolidation of departments under one Principal, the eventual freeing of Principals from teaching duties, the recognition of the Principal as the supervisory head of the school, and the establishment of the Department of Elementary School Principals. Pierce's identification of factors was supported by The Common School Journal (1839).

During the mid-nineteenth century the term "Principal Teacher" was the title for the controlling head of a school in the large city school systems of the United States. Reavis, Pierce, and Stullken (1931), Hillegas (1922), and Henry J. Otto and David C. Sanders (1964) wrote that the "Principal Teacher" was a male, appointed most often for his knowledge of teaching methods and his ability to carry out routine administrative functions. However, in addition to

such tasks, the "Principal Teacher" continued his full-time teaching duties. Pierce (1935) noted that the functions of this position were no more than clerical, routine, and disciplinary in nature. Pierce continued with the evolution of the position by citing the grading of classes and the unifying of work at each grade level. The former action alleviated large numbers of students of differing ages and ability levels in each class, while the latter developed consistency of instruction throughout all grades. During this time and up to the turn of the century Principals continued to be head teachers and supervision continued to be handled by personnel in the Superintendent's office. From this point on, though, the supervisory duties of the Principal increased. By the early twentieth century Principals were giving orders and enforcing time commitments of teachers. Principals, by this time, included a minority of women. He/She managed all supplies, and classified and disciplined students.

Paul Revere Pierce contributed the most organized and comprehensive evolution of the Principalship up to 1935. The years, 1935-1991 are pieced together through a variety of sources, no one being chronologically comprehensive.

During the decades 1920-1960 the literature concerning the development of the Principalship came mainly from three sources, the Journal of the National Elementary School Principal Association, which provided primary source material, books written during the decades 1920-1960, and

books written after that time which provided secondary source material reflecting back upon the 1920-1960 period.

The National Association of Elementary School Principals was established in 1921 and with it the professionalization of the Principalship began. The Journal written by the Association became a forum for articles by Principals and other professionals about the art of "principalling," professional improvement and professional leadership.

Books such as The Elementary School Its Organization and Administration by William C. Reavis, Paul Revere Pierce, and Edward H. Stullken (1931), The Origin and Development of the Public School Principalship by Paul Revere Pierce (1935), and The Principal and His School by Elwood P. Cubberly (1923), are chief among the few primary source materials which addressed the Principalship and its role written during the 1920-1960 time period itself.

Books such as Principals In Action by Van Cleve Morris, Robert L. Crowson, Cynthia Porter-Gehrie, and Emanuel Hurwitz (1984), The School Principal by Samuel Goldman (1966), The Elementary School Organization and Administration by Henry J. Otto and David C. Sanders (1964), provide secondary source summaries for the 1920-1960 time period. In the 1920s Elwood P. Cubberly published The Principal and His School, outlining types of organizational formats for school districts. He described internal

arrangements of class size and teacher/student ratio. He was one of the most prolific authors in the area of organizational possibilities for the Principal and his school.

While the literature, most definitely the journal articles, began to support the notion of the Principalship as a leadership position, the reality continued to find Principals functioning in managerial roles. This was exemplified by articles such as H.D. Fillers' 1923 School Review investigation of how Principals spent their time.

In the 1920s, educational literature also focused on standardized testing, just beginning to be in vogue. Pierce pointed out (1935) that in order to legitimize something it was important to define it as a science, including any supervisory duties granted to the Principal.

The definition of the Principalship in the 1920s used three functional approaches outlined in Otto and Sanders in Elementary School Organization and Administration (1964). This book, as a secondary source material, defined Principalship tasks and activities, inventoried all duties performed by Principals, and reviewed job specifications provided by Superintendents' offices. Paralleling these methods of description, the National Association of Elementary School Principals spent its early years defining the Principalship by not only gathering documentation of duties performed but by also studying the characteristics of

the typical individual who held the position. At this time Harold D. Fillers, School Review, (1923), Edward Stanton, Elementary School Journal (1927), and Fred Ayers, American School Board Journal (1930) attempted, in individual studies, to categorize Principals by time studies of office routines, categorizing managerial duties, and studying value preferences assigned by Principals and Superintendents to various administrative duties. These efforts served to legitimize the Principalship as a position of leadership by better understanding the administrative role.

A major milestone was marked in the decade of the 1930s in educational administrative philosophy. The economic depression of that time was the foundation from which emerged an educational philosophy that evolved from the work of industrial psychologists and sociologists. Contributors such as Mary Park Follett, Elton Mayo, Fritz Roethlisberger, Chester Barnard, and Herbert Simon were in the forefront. Reported by secondary sources, such as Goldman's The School Principal (1966), Van Cleve Morris, Robert L. Crowson, Cynthia Porter-Gehrie, and Emanuel Hurwitz's Principals In Action (1984), the beginnings of leadership and empowerment were made known. Again, the lofty nature of the literature was contrasted by the reality of a depressed economic environment. Articles in the National Association Journal, although not critical of leadership designs, did bring reality to the foreground. The National Elementary Principals Association's authorship of the official report

Morrison and Charles L. Spain, "Education Through Participation" (1935), changed the focus of education officially from preparing boys and girls for adulthood to looking at children as developing beings. This concept called for sweeping changes of disciplinary procedures and for developing the notion of creating a child-centered environment. This climate affected the Principalship. The literature, again, steered Principals toward leadership of staff, working together with staff, and working toward a supportive role within the school. There was a constant pull between the reality of everyday lives of Principals, many forced to resume teaching duties in addition to Principal duties, and the idealized opportunities for leadership expressed by Morrison.

The involvement of the United States in World War II gave impetus for literature which challenged the Principal to encourage a democratic approach to education. Worth McClure, Superintendent of Schools in Seattle, Washington, wrote in his article "The Principal's Job Today" in the National Elementary Principal Journal (1943) along with Harold McNally in his article "The Challenge of the Elementary School Principal" (1950) that encouraging this trend toward democratically run schools and encouraging the use of scientific research would bring the Principalship into the modern age of the 1950s. In support of democracy,

articles in the journals of the 1950s emphasized an anti-Communist rhetoric.

The literature during the remaining years of the 1950s and 1960s emphasized the societal changes evident as the United States emerged from World War II as a world leader. Articles in the National Elementary Principal's Journal authored by writers such as Lowell W. Beach (1956), E. T. McSwain (1950), and Sarah Lou Hammond (1956) repeatedly called for change in the educational institution. They also continued to identify the Principal as the leader of the school.

The decades of the 1960s through the present are touted by the literature as the leadership years for the Principalship. During this time the major theme of articles, books, and conferences is directed toward meeting the needs of children and staff during changing times. Such prominent author educators as John Goodlad (1971), Henry J. Otto (1961), Seymour B. Sarason (1971), Patterson, Purkey, and Parker (1986), Michael Fullan (1985), Roland Barth (1980), Thomas Sergiovanni (1987), and Terrence Deal (1990) encourage leadership skills and behaviors. There is an effort to categorize such skills and behaviors and although the terms utilized may be titled differently, all agree that leadership involves having a vision, setting goals, and leading school improvement actions. The literature from the National Elementary Principals Journal urged Principals to establish themselves as leaders in curriculum. The

Encyclopedia of Education (1971) defined leadership as an act that initiates a new structure in interaction with others, catapulting the Principal into the role of change agent. In making this a priority for Principals, the publication, A Nation At Risk (1983), clearly led the way in identifying Principals as the key players in the crucial leadership role for school development and community support for reform. This report has had a lasting effect over the last eight years. The Principalship was thrown into the spotlight of reform and the pressure to live up to this role was intense. The realities of the position, while changing to meet the literature expectations, was still, for many Principals, light years away. Barth (1980) described, in Run School Run, a typical day for a Principal. This description was in keeping with Lori Manasse's (1985) and Morris, Crowson, Hurwitz, and Porter-Gehrie's (1981) studies. Both studies defined the Principal's day as a continuous stream of constant interplay with various constituencies, defined by brief encounters, planned and unplanned. The literature recommending that the Principal be a vision maker is clouded, once again, by the reality of a daily routine. This researcher conducted a mail survey to assess the reality of the position from practicing Principals in a random selection of Massachusetts' elementary schools.

A major conflict among Principals today continues to be the ideal of educational leadership versus the reality of

public school administration. The final chapter of this research summarizes the status of the Principalship today and projects the role's evolution through the 1990s and into the twenty-first century. The major sources utilized are the current journals such as The School Administrator, published by the American Association of School Administrators (AASA), The Principal View, published by the Massachusetts Elementary School Principals Association (MESPA), The National Association of Elementary School Principals (NAESP) journals and booklets, and the pamphlet Here's How, Educational Leadership, published by the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development (ASCD). Other publications used were Instructional Leadership, by Wilma Smith and Richard L. Andrews published by ASCD, Restructuring American Schools, published by AASA, Effective Schools Research Abstracts, published by Lawrence Lezotte, Run School Run (1981), by Roland Barth, several other articles from a variety of journals, and interviews with current Principals conducted by this researcher.

Additional information focussing on the potential of the position's future was gained at the 1990 Summer Fellows Program sponsored by the National Elementary Principals Association. This week-long conference, in Nashville, Tennessee, paid particular attention to leadership issues for Principals during the decade of the 1990s. National speakers, including Terrence Deal, Bernice McCarthy, and Philip Hallinger, offered visions of the future. The second

conference attended by this researcher was the International Reading Association Conference in May, 1991, in Las Vegas, Nevada. Many presentations focused on leadership goals of the Principal in guiding reform measures. The Principal as a leader who empowers others, a leader of leaders was a highlight of both conferences.

Projections for the future continue to cite leadership roles for the Principal. However, little information is provided which assists a Principal to bridge the gap between the "is" and the "ought," what the Principalship should be as opposed to what, in most districts, it is. The balance between leadership and management continues to be a conflict with few guidelines to define the division. The literature, while it continues to tout the leadership and importance of the building Principal, seems unable to address the reality of too much paper work, too many responsibilities, and too many other priorities in a nation which stresses the importance of education yet takes few steps to change what exists. Conclusions reached by Principals during interviews were that empowerment, "building based management," climate, and culture issues, were ideals that Principals wished to be priorities. Yet, in reality the bureaucratic systems, the paper work, the budget crisis, the demands placed upon Principals by students whose homes are not supportive of education, all serve to thwart leadership efforts.

Curricula from three institutions of higher learning, Boston University, Wheelock College, and the University of

Massachusetts/Boston are used to provide some insight into preparatory programs for the Principalship. Although these three institutions provide a tiny sampling of national education preparatory programs, and therefore do not necessarily reflect a broad national philosophy, they do represent a method of preparation that may, itself, be in need of change; change necessary in light of the evolving position of the Principalship that requires intense problem solving abilities, patience, ability to wade through "minutiae," organizational skills, and current knowledge of educational programs. This research attempts to provide insight into the future given historical and currently emerging trends.

C H A P T E R 2

THE EARLY YEARS OF PUBLIC EDUCATION AND THE RISE OF THE PRINCIPALSHIP

2.1 Introduction

Be sure, then, first of all, as to the character of the man you would employ as principal. He it is who must watch over the growth of mind in your children, adjust the things taught to their capacities, who must correct their wanderings with a humane spirit, and imbue them with high and noble purposes

(Kirk, 1891: 600).

The modern Principal occupies a key position in the administration of public school systems. That person bears the chief responsibility for the efficient operation of the elementary school or secondary school. In accordance with the general policies of the Superintendent, the Principal initiates local administrative procedures, supervises classroom instruction, furnishes educational leadership for the school community, and serves as the professional leader of his/her school. However, the position of the Principal has not always been so significant. Most of the important duties and powers assigned to the Principalship have resulted from a long period of development (Pierce, 1935: 1).

The modern public school Principalship had its beginnings in the early high schools. The chief factors influencing the early development of the Principalship were common to both the elementary school and the high school.

The Principalship did not begin as a clearly defined position. It emerged in response to a multitude of influences, including increasing student enrollment, the number of new teachers needing to be trained, the increased number of services provided by the schools, and the grading of the school's classes and curriculum (Pierce, 1932: 1; Goldman, 1966: 3).

The emergence of the Principalship in the high school was patterned after the private academies of the late eighteenth century and early nineteenth century. The early public high school Principal had responsibilities similar to those of the private academy Headmaster. Responsibilities included a small number of teachers to supervise, and simple administrative duties to perform. Most of the Headmaster's time, however, was spent teaching (Catalogue of the St. Louis High School, December, 1862, p.4; Twelfth Annual Report of the Board of Education of St. Louis 1866 Appendix; Goldman, 1966). Although the term Headmaster continued to be used in the private school domain, this term, in most instances, eventually gave way to the term Principal in the public domain. Since this research will be geared to the public school, the term Principal will be applied to refer to the head of a public school.

The stages most often cited in the development of the Principalship are:

Stage	Chief Duty
1. ONE TEACHER	TEACHING
2. HEAD TEACHER	TEACHING
3. TEACHING PRINCIPAL (part time)	TEACHING
4. BUILDING PRINCIPAL (full time)	ADMINISTRATION
5. SUPERVISING PRINCIPAL (full time)	SUPERVISING

(Crouch, 1926)

In this chapter, the reader will be introduced to the early history of the Public School System in The United States. Much of the history recorded is the history of the rise of public school education in Massachusetts (Gist, 1926). This history mirrors the beginnings of most early colonial school systems. This chapter will also introduce the reader to the factors that gave rise to the position of Principal prior to the mid-nineteenth century.

2.2 The Early Years of Public School Education to the Mid-Nineteenth Century

The first system of public education documented in the United States was in Massachusetts in the middle of the seventeenth century (Graves, 1923; Gist, 1926). The Finance Commission of the City of Boston prepared a Chronology of the Boston Public Schools in 1912. The Chronology is based upon the writings from Wightman's Annals of the Primary Schools, school documents and school committee minutes. The first date cited is 1635, only five years after Boston, itself, was founded. That year the Latin School for boys was established as the first public school in Boston; this was a year before the founding of Harvard College. It is

probable that what we now regard as the elementary and higher branches of education were taught, but its main purpose became the preparation of the boys as young men for college (p. 5).

> The first Latin School-house stood, fronting on the street to which it gave the name, "School Street," on a lot of land belonging to the town,... (Third Annual Report of The Superintendent of The City Of Boston, Nathan Bishop, Boston, December 28, 1853, p. 5).

The year 1641 marks the town vote that "Deare Island shall be improved for the maintanance of a Free Schoole for the Towne" and, in 1649, Long and Spectacle Islands were leased for the use of the school. In 1642, selectmen legislated to:

> have a vigilant eye over their brethren and neighbors; to see that none of them shall suffer so much barbarism in any of their families as not to endeavor to teach their children and apprentices so much learning as may enable them perfectly to read the English tongue and obtain a knowledge of the capital laws (The Finance Committee, p. 5).

In 1647, Colonial law required every township of 50 households to appoint a teacher to instruct children, "...to write and read." Every township of 100 households was required to set up a "Grammar School" with a Master to prepare pupils for the university. The Grammar School accepted students from age seven until entrance into a university. It was not until a December 18, 1682 town vote that writing and "cyphering" were added subjects of study. Separate schools teaching writing and "cyphering" were established under the tutelage of Writing Masters. In 1683,

Colonial law required every town of 500 households to set up and maintain two Grammar Schools and two Writing Schools. Grammar Masters were appointed to teach reading, grammar, geography and other "...higher subjects," while Writing Masters were appointed to teach only writing and arithmetic. The two schools, Grammar and Writing, later became known in Boston as "Common Schools." Common Schools were the forerunner to the Elementary School. Eventually both the Grammar and the Writing School were included in one schoolhouse. However, the appointment of two distinct Masters continued into the nineteenth century. School-masters, each a " ... discreet person of good conversation well instructed in the tongues" were hired to "teach children and youth..." (Third Annual Report Of The Superintendent of Public Schools Of The City of Boston, Nathan Bishop, Boston, December 28, 1853, p. 5; The Finance Commission of the City of Boston 1912, p. 5; Reavis, Pierce, & Stullken, 1931).

These early schools were devoted to Church teachings. Little attention was paid to efficient teaching. The methodology of teaching was subordinate to the religious subject matter.

> Our Public Schools were instituted for the sake of the Christian religion, which was at once their source and their object. It is pleasant to look back on the past and trace the consequences of these feeble beginnings to their source, as we would follow the streams which have fertilized the land to their springs on the mountains. To the early and continued connection of our system of education with the Christian religion our schools are indebted for their vitality and usefulness;

> and without this connection they must become little else than an empty show (City Document, Number 22, 1852, Reported in the Annual Superintendent's Report, December 28, 1853, p. 6).

Educational instruction was in the hands of the ministry while laymen took charge of the supervision of instruction. The first official recognition of the supervision of schools occurred in Massachusetts in 1789. A state law was passed to employ a committee in each township to look after schools. By the nineteenth century each town had its own independent schools under the auspices of a town committee later known as the School Board (Parkinson, 1897: 553; Gist, 1923: 205).

Up to the time of the Revolutionary War schools were most numerous in Massachusetts and Connecticut, few existed in other colonies (Sears, 1881; Gist, 1924: 205).

Connecticut had established its first public school in New Haven in 1639 and a second school in Hartford in 1642 (Sears, 1881: 21). In most colonies, prior to the Revolutionary War, schools were tied to the Church.

The Puritans of Boston were the first group to provide for primary school education. These schools were held in the homes for children ages four through seven. They were known as "Dame Schools" as they were taught by women. Primary Schools were formally established in Boston, in 1818, to include the public education of children ages four through seven. The City of Boston was the first City School System to incorporate the Primary School along with the

Grammar School under one school system creating a consistent structure from age four until university age. Outside of the northern colonies, Primary Schools were neglected (Sears, 1881).

By the end of the seventeenth century, Massachusetts, Connecticut, and New Hampshire required a Primary School wherever the number of households reached a value stipulated by town law. All schools, grammar, writing, or primary receiving public money were termed "Free Schools." Most Southern schools, the few that did exist, were not free. Schools were open to boys only.

> Of female education little was said, and less done...it was significantly asked, "When girls become scholars who is to make the puddings and the pies?" They were even excluded from the public schools as late as 1784. There was no free school, even in Boston, for teaching girls to write, till after the beginning of this Century (19th) (Sears, 1881: 22).

During the years of the Revolutionary War, most schools were closed. The years following the War led to the establishment of more free schools. What is now known as the Elementary School began as an outgrowth of the Boston "Common School" in the nineteenth century. It served both girls and boys (Sears, 1881; Reavis, Pierce, & Stullken, 1931). Often, the Elementary School was referred to as the "ungraded district school." All ages were taught together under the direction of a Master and Teacher Assistants. The length of the school day was negotiable depending upon the ability of the teacher, the distance of school to an

individual's home, or the economic status of a district. During the years 1924-1926, the United States Bureau of Education conducted a Biennial survey to assess the number of days American citizens had attended school. Selected results are as follows:

Year	Number of Days in School
1800	80
1840	208
1870	582

(Reavis, Pierce, & Stullken, 1931).

In 1818 the Primary School was first established as part of the Boston School System for children between the ages of four and seven years. A separate Primary School Committee of 36 members was appointed by The Boston School Board that was independent of the regular Board (Annual Report of the School Committee of the City of Boston, 1866, City of Boston Finance Commission 1912, p. 7).

In 1821, the first public high school, English Classical, was opened in Boston and became established as part of the American free school system. Prior to the establishment of the Public High School, boys completing Grammar School continued to Academies, usually religious in nature (Sears, 1881: 23; Reavis, Pierce, & Stullken, 1931). The opening of English Classical prepared boys for mercantile and mechanical pursuits (The Boston Finance Commission, 1912: 7).

Attracting competent instructors to country schools was a difficult task. Robert Coram published a book in 1791 claiming that, "The country schools are in every respect despicable, wretched, and contemptible. The teachers...are shamefully deficient in every qualification...(Sears, 1881: 24). Many teachers had, themselves, only graduated from the district's grammar school. No teacher training schools existed.

In the larger cities teachers were often well educated men referred to as Masters. Each town had its own independent school system and through its local school committees monitored the education of its pupils. The position of city school Superintendent was not created until April, 1851. The position was an outgrowth of the inability of School Committee members to monitor all the schools in a district given the growing number of pupils and teachers (Sears, 1881). By 1830 schools were described as having more adequate space than during pre-Revolutionary War days. Early schools lacked space and were often run in unpleasant conditions. Judge Longstreet of Georgia described a typical school house in 1790.

> It was a simple log pen, about 20 square feet with a doorway cut out of the logs...A large 3 inch plank attached to logs by means of wooden pins, served the whole school for a writing desk. (Sears, 1881: 25)

Sears cites an additional account of a changing school house,

> The large fireplaces, the movable seats, and the dunce blocks and fools' caps were going out of

> use. Discipline was still severe, but there was a better supply of books, a better classification of the pupils, and a more regular order of exercises." (1881: 25).

Further accounts focus on the large number of pupils to one teacher. It was not unusual to have one teacher to seventy pupils. Sears records the following account,

> ...Everything was mechanical and followed a certain routine, repeating empty words in a way which ossified thought; and the teacher had so many things to do at once, and never time to do any one thing well, that there was often not a little confusion (1881: 25).

"At opening of school, usually numbering from 80-100..." all ages were taught together (Sears, 1881: 25).

In 1846, the Buffalo, New York Board of Education experimented with a three room school in a three story building. One room was on each floor. As the school population increased, the large rooms were partitioned into smaller ones. The addition of teachers and assistants laid the foundation for the grading of school work several years later (Morrison, Tenth yearbook, 1931: 155).

In 1837, the State Board of Education in Massachusetts was established with Horace Mann elected secretary. Horace Mann preached a doctrine of centralization of the school system. He had urged making the system a "unit" and placing it under the supervision of a Superintendent of public schools. The separation of the primary, grammar, and high school was in direct opposition to Mann's centralized approach. Each primary teacher with her school was an independent entity under the auspices of a primary board.

The primary board, which originated in 1818, was independent of the regular school committee. Horace Mann's vision for a centralized school system began the demise of the primary board which ultimately disbanded in 1855. Next, the centralization of the Boston School System required the dismantling of the "double-headed system" which found schools headed by two Masters, the Grammar and the Writing Master. The division of schools under the "double-headed system" had begun in 1682, in direct response to increasing student enrollment. Instead of establishing a second "classical school" "... the inhabitants wisely decided... to open two schools, for the teaching of children to write and cypher" (Annual Report of the Superintendent of Public Schools of the City of Boston, 1853: 7). The "double-headed system" continued in existence evolving into one school building with two Masters. The Writing Master, however, was generally unable to teach any other subject while the Grammar Master taught a wide range of subjects. In 1853, Nathan Bishop, Boston's first Superintendent of schools, described a typical school-house employing the "double-headed system,"

> In each school-house there were two large rooms or halls of equal size, one above the other, in which accommodations were provided for 300 or 400 children. The upper room was, by a uniform custom, occupied by the Grammar School, and the lower by the Writing School. Each department being under the control and instruction of a Master and a distinct set of Teachers, was kept almost as an entirely independent school" (Annual Report, 1853: 9).

In 1847, John Philbrick was appointed the single Master of the Quincy School. With his appointment as the single Master within the school, the custom of "double-headed schools" began its decline. Authority within each school was given to the Grammar Master and unification took another step forward (Parkinson, 1897, The Boston Finance Commission, 1912: 10; Morrison, Tenth Yearbook, 1931; Crowson, Porter-Gehrie, & Hurwitz, Jr., 1884).

In 1851, the position of Superintendent was created in Boston. This position freed the laymen on the school board from the increasing hours of time required to monitor the growing schools. The Superintendent became the chief supervisor of the school who monitored the quality of education provided. The board of education released certain responsibilities for governing the schools to the newly created position of Superintendent. The school board continued to make the rules (legislation) while the Superintendent became the executive with the authority to carry out the rules (Gove, 1899: 521).

> The Superintendent of the Public Schools shall be elected annually by ballot, at the quarterly meeting of the Board in May, to enter upon duties of his office on the first day of June next ensuing...The duties of the Superintendent shall be the following...He shall devote himself to the study of our school and of the condition of the schools, and shall keep himself acquainted with the progress of instruction and discipline in other places, in order to suggest appropriate means for the advancement of the Public Schools in this city...He shall...exercise a personal supervision over all schools, visit and examine each of them...and...present to the Board an annual report on their condition...(Rules of the School Committee and Regulations of the Public

Schools of the City of Boston, 1853, City Document-No. 12).

The creation of the Superintendency began the process of hiring professionals other than teachers to monitor the education of children. The events leading to the modern day duties of the Elementary Principal began to be established as centralization of school systems occurred and identification of educational leadership needs became apparent.

2.3 Stages in the Evolution of the Position of Principalship

The position of Principal was not included in any plans for public school education. The first use of the title "Principal" is hard to trace (Gist, 1924; Morrison, 1931). An annual report for the City of Albany, 1858, refers to the opening of a new building under the charge of John F. Prentice as Principal aided by seven female teachers. The same report infers that the title of "Principal" had been in use since the organization of the school system in 1844. The minutes of the meeting of the Board of Education of Albany on May 1, 1867 resolved "...that the several Principals be allowed compensation for making fires in their respective schools during the cold season of the year, regarding the season to be six months in duration" (Morrison, 1931: 156).

Although the actual date when the title "Principal" was first utilized is not apparent, there are certain factors that led to its development. The term "development" is key

since the position was not created; rather it evolved through various stages until it became recognizable in the mid-nineteenth century. Factors which prompted the development of the Principalship include the rapid growth of cities, the grading of schools, the consolidation of departments under a single "Principal," the freeing of the "Principal" from teaching duties, the recognition of the "Principal" as the supervisory head of the school, and the establishment of the Department of Elementary School Principals within the National Association of Education in 1921 (Pierce, 1935: 7).

2.3.1 The Schoolmaster

Prior to the Mid-Nineteenth Century, the head of a school, primary or grammar, was the Schoolmaster. The first Public Latin School in Boston was headed by a Master "...able to fit youth for the University..." (Annual Report of the Superintendent of Public Schools of the City of Boston, 1853: 6). Crouch (1926) outlines the most widely accepted stages of development beginning with the Schoolmaster. The Schoolmaster was the teacher in his school. He was in charge of teaching all subjects to students of all levels (Goldman, 1966). This situation continued in many rural areas throughout the nineteenth and early twentieth century. City schools centralized in the mid-nineteenth century. The Schoolmaster within the early schools was in charge of the building during school hours. He taught pupils, kept records, cared for the building, and

made required reports. In 1836, in the report of the Baltimore Board of Education for the City School there is reference to the Headmaster's responsibilities for teaching lessons, listening to recitations, and monitoring the school building (Crouch, Seventh Yearbook, 1928: 161).

As school systems were established and individual schools grew in size, it became apparent that one teacher could not teach all subjects. Therefore, two Masters were employed, one as the Grammar Master and the other as the Writing Master who taught "writing and ciphering." Neither Master was in charge of the whole school (Seventh Yearbook, 1928: 161).

The school population continued to grow. This growth led to the hiring of assistants to aide the Masters. The first record of assistant teachers being appointed was in Baltimore in 1839. A report listing the teachers within the city schools shows a Master and an assistant in every school with more than 100 pupils. In 1848, the Baltimore School Board recorded that, "The services of assistant teachers continue to give satisfaction...it...affords more time for the principals to devote to the instruction of farther advanced scholars..." (Seventh Yearbook, 1928: 161). In 1845, the Baltimore School Board added additional assistants due to the continued increase in enrollment in all schools exceeding 200 pupils (Seventh Yearbook, 1928: 161). The Head or Principal Teacher usually taught the advanced grades leaving the assistant with the younger children. Head or

Principal Teachers were usually men while assistants were women (Morrison, 1931: 155).

2.3.2 The Head Teacher

The next stage noted by Crouch in the evolution of the Principalship is the "Head Teacher Stage." As schools increased in enrollment, the number of teachers and assistants increased within a school. There was a need to have an individual in the building be in charge of the whole school (Weldy, 1979: p. 34). In the City of Boston the Writing Master became subordinate to the Grammar Master "...as the controlling head of the whole school..." (Seventh Yearbook, 1928: 162). As primary schools in Boston were brought under the supervision of the school Superintendent and school board, the Grammar School Master became the supervisor of the primary school as well as the grammar school.

> The Grammar School and the Primary School in each district would come more fully under the care and supervision of the head-master as Principal, whose duty it would be to look thoroughly to the fullest improvement of every department (Annual Report of the School Committee of the City of Boston, 1866: 59).

The title of this head teacher varied from "Chief Teacher" to "Head Teacher" to "Principal Teacher." The duties of this head were similar from school to school, only the title differed. Early "Principalship" duties were recorded as a list of duties of the "Master" in Boston in 1857. The Master of the grammar school: 1. Admits individual pupils upon examination; 2. Visits primary

schools each year and gives certificates of admission for the grammar school; 3. Gives pupils permission to study the next textbooks when the year's assignment is completed (Seventh Yearbook, 1928: 163).

Prior to the consolidation of the primary and grammar schools the Master of the primary school's duties were: 1. Admit qualified pupils; 2. Require transfers and excuses for absences; 3. Arrange recesses to coordinate with grammar school if there is a shared building (Seventh Yearbook, 1928: 163).

The general duties of both Masters included: 1. Keeping a register of names, ages, and residences of students; 2. Examining scholars; 3. Reporting semi-annually to the Secretary of the Board of Education as to the number of scholars in the school; 4. Giving to the Board Secretary the name, address, and other information on each teacher appointed; 5. Excluding unruly pupils; 6. Making rules for the use of school premises; 7. Expelling, suspending, and readmitting pupils; 8. Arranging classes to provide exercises -morning and afternoon (Annual Report of the School Committee of the City of Boston, 1857: 276-277; Seventh Yearbook, 1928: 163).

In 1853, the Ordinances of the Common Council of Buffalo, New York covered the work of the Elementary Principal:

1. The Principal Teacher of the highest department is designated as Principal of the school and is given power to make and enforce rules and regulations for its

government, subject to the approval of the Superintendent;

2. The Principal Teacher is required to keep a record of attendance of all teachers and report this to the Superintendent;

3. The Principal directs giving examinations as the basis of promotion;

4. The Principal is required to set up a rigid classification of pupils and to forbid teachers to trespass on the work of other grades except in reviews;

5. The Principal is given the power to divide the labors of the school among the teachers and to govern, direct, and control the departments;

6. The Principal is empowered to delegate duties to children;

7. The Principal is required to guard city property and render notices of need for repairs and replacements;

8. The Principal is empowered to suspend children (two cases of tardiness a week and four a month furnished sufficient grounds for suspension);

9. The Principal is empowered to employ and supervise janitors;

10. The Principal is required to keep yards, sheds, and outbuildings clean and orderly;

11. The Principal is the librarian in charge of cataloging and keeping records of books, loans to pupils and patrons;

12. The Principal is required to make reports to the Superintendent as required;

13. The Principal is authorized to expend the appropriations for his school, and render accounts of such expenditures duly audited to the Common Council.

In addition, the Principal was still required, in Buffalo, to teach a class of 60-75 pupils (Morrison, Tenth Yearbook, 1931: 157).

Teaching remained the chief function of the Head Teacher or Principal Teacher (Pierce, 1935). Although the handling of general duties took care of many clerical issues, there was a growing need to assist teachers with problems of instruction. This need paved the way for the next stage in the evolution of the principalship, that of the Teaching Principal.

2.3.3 The Teaching Principal

As schools continued to grow, the clerical duties increased. Growth of student enrollment brought with it an increase in the number of new teachers brought into the schools. Many of these teachers had no other training than their own public school education. There developed the need for the Headmaster to supervise and aid the new teachers on staff. As the Headmaster taught his own classes, the need for assistants capable of teaching became ever more apparent to relieve the Master of his duties in order to assist novice teachers (West, 1925; Pierce, 1935). Dr. John Philbrick, cited earlier as Principal of the Quincy School, and later Superintendent of the Boston Schools wrote "...Every head assistant should be capable of managing and teaching the first division, during the master's absence from the room, so as to allow him the necessary time for his most important work" (Seventh Yearbook, 1928: 163). That most important work was beginning to be seen as assistance to teachers (Gist, 1924; Goldman, 1966).

Superintendent Wells of Chicago wrote in 1859, "I would suggest that...principals of larger schools be relieved from immediate charge of their own rooms during a portion of each day for the purpose of attending to the general interests of their respective schools" (Seventh Yearbook, 1928: 163).

The need for supervision of the whole school led to the need to relieve the Headmaster or Head-Teacher of some teaching responsibility. However, this acknowledgement of release from teaching duties effected only those Head Teachers in city schools. In rural communities the Principal or Head Teacher continued to perform his clerical duties in addition to a full teaching load. In certain rural locations this situation continued into the mid-twentieth century.

2.3.4 The Building Principal

The general movement toward a Principalship with release from teaching duties was curtailed by the Civil War. Cubberly wrote,

> The coming of the Civil War for a time checked almost all material development in the North, and almost completely closed the schools in the South. Up to about 1880 in the North and 1890-1895 in the South, further development and expansion came but slowly; ...few new school supervisory offices were employed (Seventh Yearbook, 1928: 164).

After the Civil War cities again witnessed a tremendous increase in enrollment in the public schools. Buildings holding larger student bodies were built and city school systems became more complex organizationally. In 1867, the

By-laws, rules and regulations of the City of Albany read that,

> In all schools in which assistants are associated with a principal, the principal shall be recognized as the head of the school, and all his directions which do not conflict with the regulations, shall be obeyed by the assistants. (Morrison, Tenth Yearbook, 1931: 156).

The increase in pupil population necessitated the need for a better accounting of pupils. This need led to the use of a variety of record keeping forms. The Superintendent was no longer able to visit all the district schools due to the increase in school and pupil numbers and the time needed to visit and evaluate. City Superintendents began to look to the Teaching Principal to take over some of the Superintendent's individual building responsibilities. This increase in duties given to the Teaching Principal necessitated a release from all teaching responsibilities. Although Superintendents envisioned Principals with no teaching duties, the concept of supervision in order to improve instruction had not as yet received much emphasis (Morrison, Tenth Yearbook, 1931: 158; Goldman, 1966; Pierce, 1935). Supervision, at this time, required the Principal to monitor the teacher in regard to student progress and to complying with school system policies. The school board of Albany records in 1867,

> Resolved, that the several principals of the public schools of the City under the charge of the Board, be and are hereby requested to report to this Board within five days from this date, their opinion of the qualifications and efficiency of their several assistants, with such facts and suggestions, in regard to their modes of teaching

> and general fitness for their positions, as may tend to the information of this Board (Morrison, Tenth Yearbook, 1931: 156).

The Teaching Principal was released from his teaching duties with little training or preparation for any supervisory duties. This individual had been trained, if at all, for teaching. Given the Principal's lack of supervisory experience, the natural tendency was to emphasize more concrete administrative responsibilities (Goldman, 1966). Frank McMurray, in Elementary School Standards, cited by the Seventh Yearbook of 1928, of the Elementary Principals Association, writes that the Principal viewed his position to be judged by his superiors primarily by his promptness and accuracy in regard to the mechanical and tangible matters, i.e., clerical duties (Seventh Yearbook, 1928: 165).

The Principal remained concerned with details and routine. Individuals in this position were not experimenters or risk takers. It was not until the decade of the 1920s, with the formation of the Association of Elementary School Principals, that the Principal began to perceive himself as a key figure in education (Goldman, 1966: 5).

2.3.5 The Supervising Principal

This phase of the evolution of the Principalship was the result of a twentieth century movement to professionalize the Principalship. McMurray outlined the duties of a Principal and placed those duties into three

groups: 1. clerical, 2. routine management, 3. supervision. McMurray wrote that number one and two could be given to minor officials. Little special experience or ability was required. He specified that principals should be occupied with number three. Principals should be the real heads of schools and not just the nominal heads. Principals should engage in supervision and curriculum evaluation and revision (Seventh Yearbook, 1928: 166).

The movement to bring the Supervising Principal into full development is a professional one. The previous stages in the evolution of the Principalship were forced by growth in numbers of pupils, larger schools, and a more complicated organization. This most recent stage was advanced by the creation of the Elementary Principal's Association in 1921 in order to professionalize the Principalship.

Freeing the Principal from teaching was part of a solution to a problem of school organization and administration. The challenge for the Supervising Principal would be the improvement of instruction, the training of teachers and the improved quality and quantity of instructional materials.

> The real supervision of teachers and pupils and the healthful activities of the school must now, as ever, rest with the principal who alone can control and direct the daily work and become personally familiar with the progress of the pupils (Crouch, Fifth Yearbook, 1926: 212).

C H A P T E R 3

THE EARLY YEARS OF THE PRINCIPALSHIP MID-NINETEENTH CENTURY - 1920

3.1 Introduction

...he (the principal) ought to be distinctly the educational leader of his school...Many Principals give their time almost entirely to administrative duties and do little supervisory work, though the latter ought to be their most important function.

(Cubberly, 1923: 24, 28).

The development of the public school Principalship received impetus from a number of factors: the rapid growth of cities, the grading of schools, the consolidation of departments under one Principal, the freeing of the Principal from teaching duties, recognition of the Principal as the supervisory head of the school, and the establishment of the Department of Elementary School Principals.

In this chapter the reader will be introduced to the factors contributing to the evolution of the Principalship from the mid-nineteenth century until 1920.

3.2 Increase in School Population

One of the main functions of the nineteenth century Superintendent of public schools was to evaluate schools. The growth of cities in the mid-nineteenth century continued at such a rapid pace that school enrollments multiplied; thus, the problems of administration that such growth created placed many demands on the time of the Superintendent. It became exceedingly difficult for the Superintendent to give personal attention to the management

and supervision of local schools. One step to rectify this problem was to turn local management of schools over to the Principal. Paul Revere Pierce quoted Dr. William T. Harris of St. Louis in 1871:

> Experiments have been in progress for two years to ascertain the most efficient organization for large schools and also for groups of schools. A system continually increasing in size requires frequent changes in its organization, in order to preserve the balance between its local and central interests. When the number of pupils in a school system increases from 5,000 to 20,000, the duties of the Superintendent and Board...not only become more complex, but they change essentially in quality and kind. In the former case their local importance predominates. When there are only 5,000 pupils the schools can be frequently visited by the Superintendent and much stimulated by his personal presence: petty cases of discipline can be settled by him; he can examine the methods of discipline and instruction and the proficiency of the pupils....With 20,000 pupils this becomes impossible and the system of supervision must expand so as to leave the local supervision to independent principals in a large measure (Pierce, 1935: 9).

The wave of foreign immigrants into the cities of the United States was substantial. Coinciding with foreign immigration into cities was the shifting of the rural population from outlying districts to the large cities of the country as industrialization took hold.

> The rural school population is actually decreasing everywhere, ...while length of terms of schools, salaries paid, and general conditions ...have improved materially in cities during the past decade, the tendency has been rather in the opposite direction in rural schools...There is a constant drift of population from the rural districts to the smaller towns, from the smaller towns toward the cities (Stryker, 1898: 10).

Stryker, in his article, "The Future of Rural Schools," noted a Kansas record of school attendance and length of term in 1898.

Daily Attendance Record	Number of Schools
5 or less Pupils	732
6-10 Pupils	1,221
11-15 Pupils	1,671
16-20 Pupils	1,712
Over 20 Pupils	3,387*

*Less than 2/5th of the State is in this last category.

Length of Term	Number of Schools
3 months or less	149
4 months	549
5 months	789
6 months	2,707
7 months	2,346
8 months or longer	2,084

(Stryker, 1898: 10)

Stryker wrote that 1/10th of the schools in Kansas have an attendance of less than 6. "There seems to be but one solution to the problem, and that is for the little one room ungraded school to go the way of all other small concerns... better school houses are provided in the City than in the Country (Stryker 1898: 10).

By the 1830s it was apparent that there was a need for an individual within a school to be in charge in the absence of the Superintendent. Individual schools needed more

direction and supervision, thus a Head Teacher, a male, was appointed. Although his main duty was still as an instructor of pupils, his additional duties made him responsible for clerical work and pupil/teacher discipline (West, 1925). In Boston, in 1866, Masters of grammar schools were given the duties of Principal, over both the grammar and primary schools of their respective districts, with clerical, routine administrative, and disciplinary responsibilities.

> The Principals shall have the sole oversight of the scholars occupying desks in their respective schoolrooms, in respect to discipline. All misdemeanors occurring during reviews may be corrected, as the case shall require, by the Principal...(The Common School Journal, 1839: 80).

As numbers of pupils increased, the Master, Head Teacher, or Principal was aided by an assistant. The Principal was most often male while the assistant was female.

> When the Massachusetts Bill, 'Concerning Schools,' which passed into the Law of March 18, 1839, was under consideration, in the House of Representatives, Mr. Choate, of Essex, offered the following amendment:
>
> > "And in every school in this Commonwealth, containing fifty scholars, as the average number, the school district, or town to which such a school belongs, shall employ a female assistant, or assistants..." (The Common School Journal, 1839: 10)

In The Common School Journal of 1839 it was written that, "... fifty scholars are as great a number as one teacher, under any circumstances, should have exclusive care

of" (118). It was further remarked by Mr. Sprague, a Massachusetts Legislator, that,

> ...nearly all occasion for severe discipline in schools, is owing to the fact, that most children at school really have nothing to do, for a very large part of the time. In a school of fifty scholars, no one is entitled to more than three and a half minutes of the teacher's time in a half-day. The child too young to occupy his time in solitary study, must sit still, if he can, near three long hours; and a teacher is held to be no teacher, and his school no school, if children so situated, play...What I ask for them is, that you would put an assistant into every school, that so there may be less want of employment, and consequently less occasion for discipline... (The Common School Journal, 1839: 119).

The office of the Principal was now established to handle clerical functions, routine administrative matters, and to oversee discipline. With the aid of assistants, the Principal Teacher could oversee the ever-increasing numbers of pupils in the classroom.

3.3 Freedom from Teaching

During the mid-nineteenth century the term "Principal Teacher" was the common title for the controlling head of a public school in the large city school systems of the United States. This "Principal Teacher" was appointed, most often, for his knowledge of teaching methods and his ability to carry out routine administrative functions at the school level (Pierce, 1935). Training for such an administrative position was derived largely through experience "on the job." The "Principal Teacher," although considered the head of his school, and in complete charge of it, continued his full-time teaching duties (Hillegas, 1922; Reavis, Pierce, &

Stullken, 1931: Pierce, 1935; Otto & Sanders, 1964). The additional duties required of the "Principal Teacher" were no more than clerical, routine, and disciplinary in nature. Paul Revere Pierce, in his book, The Origin and Development of the Public School Principalship (1935), described the duties of this clerical and routine position as written in the Board reports of the City of Cincinnati:

> The Male Principal,...is responsible for the observance and enforcement of the rules and regulations of the Board for the guidance and directions of Teachers and government of the school...he is to classify the pupils in the different grades...and shall announce...by the ringing of a bell, the hour for beginning and closing school, for the recitation of classes and for recess. He shall promulgate to all the Teachers such rules and regulations of general application as he may receive from the Board, and record the same on the blank leaves of the Rules and Regulations - shall transmit..., at the close of each month, all bills for salaries of teachers and report monthly to the Board according to blank forms furnished him,... He shall transmit...at the close of each quarter,... a report of the conditions [of the school]... He shall see to the safe keeping and protection...of the furniture, apparatus, fences, trees and shrubbery and maintain the strictest cleanliness in the school and out houses. He shall require the pupils not to appear in or about the yard earlier than fifteen minutes before the opening of the school, and prevent them by noise or otherwise from annoying the neighborhood of the school. He shall provide for the sweeping and scrubbing, lighting and maintaining the fires of the house,...
>
> All teachers...are required to be present at their respective rooms, and report themselves personally to the Male Principals...fifteen minutes before the opening of school in the morning, and five minutes before the opening of school in the afternoon...(13, 14).

Administrative duties continued to accumulate for the "Principal Teacher" as pupil enrollment continued to

increase. The clerical duties began to be overtaken by the duties of school organization and general management of the school. For example, the reports of the boards of education in Boston, Chicago, Cincinnati, New York City, and St. Louis showed that, during the period of 1853-1900, 79 administrative duties were prescribed for Principals. Of the 79 duties, 32, or 40.5%, were concerned with organization and general management; 12, or 15.2%, with equipment and supplies; 11, or 13.9%, with office duties; 10, or 12.7%, with pupil personnel; six, or 7.6%, with building and grounds; and eight, or 10.1%, with miscellaneous activities (Pierce, 1935: 33, 34). The continued growth of duties for the "Principal Teacher," even with the addition of the assistants in the classroom, led to the necessity of freeing him from the responsibilities of the classroom teaching. In Boston, in 1866, the first major step of any large United States city occurred when the school committee recommended that Grammar School Masters be relieved of their remaining duties connected with teaching. They were directed to devote their time to overseeing the efficient running of the grammar schools and the primary schools within their district. Prior to this pronouncement the Masters ("Principal Teachers" in Boston) of the Grammar Schools had been required to visit the primary schools in their district once yearly to examine the pupils of the graduating class as well as to administer clerical and routine duties in the grammar school. This new proposal was

to make the Masters real heads of both grammar and primary schools "...acting, in fact, as Principals..." of the schools. The Annual Report of the School Committee of the City of Boston, 1866, reads,

> As the Primary Schools have already been brought under the immediate charge of this Board, and as they are at present under the general oversight of the Superintendent of Schools, so it is now only in addition, to go one step further, and, instead of allowing these schools to remain, as now, in a measure isolated, or of placing them under the charge of any newly created order of officials, your Committee would recommend that the principles already recognized, of certain duties on the part of the Grammar master to visit and examine, be enlarged and perfected, by its being made his duty, not only to examine the graduating pupils, but all the pupils; and, not limiting himself to an annual visit, he shall visit as often as the good of the school and the improvement of the scholars shall seem to require (57).

According to the Boston School Committee Annual Report of 1866 each primary school would be brought into more direct union with the grammar school in its district, a foreshadowing of the 1906 merging of the grammar school and the primary school to become the elementary school. The grammar school and primary school would now, according to this 1866 proposal, come more fully under the care and supervision of the Head Master as Principal, "...whose duty it would be to look thoroughly to the fullest improvement of every department" (57). The Superintendent of Schools would continue to have supervision of the whole system.

> The head-masters of the Grammar School shall perform the duties of Principal both in the Grammar and Primary Schools of their respective districts,apportioning their time among the various classes in such manner as shall secure the best interests,...of each pupil throughout the

grades (Annual Report of the School Committee of the City of Boston, 1866: 59).

The freeing of the Masters in Boston from teaching duties led the way for other city schools to follow. By 1867, Principals in the Cincinnati and the New York City Public Schools were relieved from all teaching duties. Other cities, such as Chicago and St. Louis, followed later. In Chicago, however, as late as 1881 Principals were still required to devote as much as one-half to one-fourth of their day to regular class instruction (Pierce, 1935: 16).

The elimination of teaching duties opened the way for Principals to, not only take care of clerical and administrative issues, but to act as supervisors for the improvement of instruction.

3.4 Recognition of the Principal as the Supervisory Head of the School

By the year 1870 The City of Boston reported in its school committee minutes the following statistics:

Number of Primary Schools..... 323
Increase for the Year..... 16
Seats, about.....18,000
Number of Teachers in Primary Schools..... 324
Average Whole Number of Pupils Belonging
to Primary Schools: Boys, 7,936;
Girls, 6,451.....14,739
Average Daily Attendance.....13,339
(p. 43)

Number of Grammar Schools..... 36
Increase for the Year..... 8
Seats.....22,854
Number of Teachers in Grammar Schools..... 466
Male Teachers, 70; Female Teachers, 396.
Whole Number of Pupils.....19,023
Average Daily Attendance.....17,807
(p. 41)

Number of High Schools..... 5
Seats..... 1,220
Number of Teachers in High Schools..... 55
Male Teachers, 30; Female Teachers, 25

(p. 38)

It was in 1870 that the first Kindergarten was established in Boston; the first public free Kindergarten in the world. By 1880, in Boston, the committee on primary instruction reported the excessive number of children in various classes, noting numbers as high as seventy to a class. The committee stated that, "...forty children are all that one woman can attend to properly...," the standard at that time being 56 pupils to a teacher (The Finance Commission of the City of Boston, 1912: 13, 15).

These enrollment statistics were typical of large city public schools in the United States at the time. The increasing numbers led to the need for school systems to reorganize delivery of services. The "Principal Teacher" became the Principal freed from teaching duties enabling him to oversee pupil progress in addition to his administrative, clerical, and disciplinary duties. The freeing of Principals from teaching responsibilities also allowed for the beginnings of a supervisory role which, until the late nineteenth century, had been reserved for the Superintendent in large cities and the school committee in smaller districts. The grading of classes, the action taken to alleviate large numbers of students of differing ages and ability levels in each class, and the unifying of work at each grade level and throughout the school system were

responsibilities of city Superintendents in the late nineteenth century. Principals acquired these responsibilities. Principals began to concern themselves with supervisory duties associated with the improvement of instruction (Pierce, 1935: 16).

The early twentieth century witnessed a dramatic increase in supervisory duties for the Principal. Superintendents continued to stress that continuity and consistency of materials be maintained in buildings within a school system. In 1906, the distinction between primary and grammar Schools was eliminated in Boston; both thereafter were known as the elementary school. Superintendents began to expect more of Principals in terms of quality of work found in the classrooms. It began to be stated in school board reports that, "...the supervising Principalship did more to elevate instruction than all the other factors combined" (Seventeenth Annual Report of the Board of Education of St. Louis, 1871: 188).

By 1908 it was established practice that Principals and Superintendents meet regularly for the purpose of discussing educational goals and objectives. Principals became instrumental in introducing new materials and subject matters into their schools: uses of seat work, development of tests in English, classes in nature study, development of drill materials in arithmetic, etc. Principals, in city and rural schools, began the job of rating teachers for efficiency and competence. The Principal was continuously

engaged in working with the increasing numbers of new teachers entering the school system (The Finance Commission of the City of Boston, 1912: 27; Pierce, 1935).

The Normal Instructor of 1898, in the article, "The Rural School in Michigan's Educational System" cited the following passage,

> Professional supervision has always been recognized as an essential element of success in our city and village schools. It is even more important in rural districts, as their teachers are so often inexperienced and without professional training... (The Honorable Jason E. Hammond, Vol. 7, No. 9: 11).

The Second Annual Report of the City Superintendent of Schools of the City of New York, 1900, cited the following statement,

> One point brought out quite clearly by the examinations made by this department is the intimate connection between the Principals' work and the condition of the new subjects in the several classes. In the schools in which the Principals spend a goodly portion of the time in class-rooms exemplifying their precepts by practical lessons in teaching, the subjects in general have been found to be in a very good condition; but the best results have been found in those schools in which the work of the Principals in the classrooms was supplemented by regular conferences with their teachers (p. 31).

The Principal's role in selecting and assigning staff became an issue in the early twentieth century. A voice in the selection of new teachers to a school, a limitation of the freedom of teachers to transfer from school to school as they chose, and the right to assign teachers to such grades and rooms as deemed best within a school were prerogatives for which the early twentieth century Principal strove.

Thus, the Principal, especially in large cities, became established as the administrative head of his school.

> He (the Principal) gave orders and enforced them. He directed, advised, and instructed teachers. He classified pupils, disciplined them, and enforced safeguards designed to protect their health and morals. He supervised and rated janitors. He requisitioned all educational, and frequently all maintenance, supplies. Parents sought his advice, and respected his regulations (Pierce, 1935: 39).

Many of the new found responsibilities of the Principalship in the early twentieth century were cited not only in school board and superintendent reports but in the creative efforts of the Principals themselves. The following chart outlines some of the new found responsibilities and activities which were initiated by Principals in the early twentieth century. Paul Revere Pierce (1935: 54), cited records from three city school systems, St. Louis, Chicago, and New York.

Activities Initiated by Principals from 1915-1930

Activity	Year	City
Pupils Clubs.....	1915	St. Louis
Supervision of playground activities at recess.....	1915	St. Louis
School newspaper.....	1915	St. Louis
Pupils activities for promoting courtesy.....	1925	Chicago
Safety Patrols.....	1925	Chicago
Clean-up activities.....	1925	Chicago
Providing clothing and food for poor.....	1925	Chicago
Equipping schools with motion picture machines.....	1926	New York
Experimental work in character education.....	1928	New York
Radio instruction.....	1929	New York

(Pierce, 1935: 54)

It is, however, clear that the majority of Principals were not, as yet, innovators. Supervision was a new responsibility and Principals, as with any other group, had varying degrees of competency and many definitions of supervision. William S. Gray of the University of Chicago conducted a school survey, in 1918, asking a sampling of Elementary Principals, "What is the most important part of your work in the supervision of this school?" The Elementary School Journal published Gray's work under the title, "The Work Of Elementary-School Principals." Four Principals were documented. Principal A described the most important part of supervision as "...the routine affairs..." Principal A believed that he made the most contribution,

> ...by keeping the physical conditions right, by securing appropriate materials for use in the classrooms, by giving personal attention to the daily attendance and to the records of pupils, by cooperating with the school nurses, truant officers and other school officials, and by working out administrative devices which conserve the time and energy of teachers. If the teachers of my building are free from routine responsibilities they can direct more of their energy toward the improvement of instruction (Gray, 1918: 24).

Principal B's conception of school supervision differed from that of Principal A. His description included a majority of time observing instruction in classrooms. Principal B was recorded as stating,

> I spend three-fourths of my time in classrooms observing instruction and assisting in the teaching. I plan to visit each room each day remaining as long as time will permit. The new teachers and those whose instruction is less effective receive most of my attention. As a rule a classroom visit is followed by a discussion with

> the teacher of the strong and weak points of her teaching. I frequently conduct a recitation for a teacher in order that she may profit through observation. During the course of each week I suggest some article, chapter or book to each teacher along those lines where help is most needed. The more important part of my work is the improvement of the technique of teaching (Gray, 1918: 24).

Principal C painted an even different picture of supervision as he focussed on testing. He stated that he, "...devotes four hours a day to the giving of formal and informal tests and to the making of tables which summarize the results of these tests...". The results pointed out the strengths and weaknesses of the instructional program. Principal C shared these results with staff objectively with the aim of making any necessary changes to the program of studies. The frequent testing of pupils enabled Principal C to "reclassify" pupils into instructional groups better suited to their needs. Principal C concluded his description of his supervisory style by stating that, "Effectiveness in my supervision dates from the time when I first began studying the objective results of the teaching in this school" (Gray, 1918: 25).

Principal D, described himself as a resident "cheerleader" who believed that his most important function was to cheer and encourage the teachers,

> ...and to secure the hearty cooperation of the patrons...I take occasion several times each day to speak on intimate terms with each teacher and to offer a word of encouragement if a teacher is having difficulty. It is only when teachers are buoyant in spirit that they can do effective classroom teaching. I also devote a large amount of time to the promotion of the parent-teachers

> club...If the hearty co-operation of parents can be secured, the school is freed from the responsibility for many details, which otherwise would interfere seriously with the effectiveness of classroom work (Gray, 1918: 25).

It is evident that each Principal viewed supervision from a different angle. Each was working to accomplish certain results. Although the four Principals contributed to the overall efficiency of their respective schools, each neglected or did not emphasize important functions in the overall definition of supervision. Gray pointed out that this is always the case when a supervisor becomes deeply interested in a limited phase of his challenge or when his conception of the function of supervision is narrow. Gray expressed concern that Principals devote their time and energy to widely different types of activities indicating a need for a discussion of the duties of Elementary School Principals. Gray stated the urgency of his concern,

> This need (definition of duties) is the more urgent because the supervision of a modern elementary school has in many cases come to be a matter of large dimensions. Formerly there were only a few teachers in a building and comparatively few problems came up for solution. Today a school is like a factory, large and complex, requiring a special type of expertness to manage it. The kind of expertness demanded can be described by first analyzing the principal's task into various phases or aspects (Gray, 1918: 26).

Gray continued to call for a more defined role for Principals. He acknowledged that many Principals felt bogged down by the demands of routine. One Principal cited in the article vowed to spend three hours a day for the improvement of instruction. This Principal came up with the

idea of having a "faculty exchange box" in the office for notes and suggestions. Teachers were asked to visit the box morning, noon, and at the close of the school day. This would appear to be the beginning of the teacher mailbox now in every school and the beginning of Principal notices to staff, replacing the Principal going to each staff member individually. Gray suggested that each Principal look closely at the organization of his/her day and that each seek to make it a more efficient one. Gray claimed that often the most effective methods of helping teachers involve the definition of the broadest view of their tasks. Showing the teacher how to go from his/her level to a higher level was valuable. Gray promoted the new idea of meeting with staff once a month or bi-weekly, the forerunner of faculty meetings. Gray was adamant about promoting supervision and the improvement of classroom teaching as the most important function of the Principal's work. He praised the use of tests and measurements in determining the quality of instruction as the most objective and scientific approach and encouraged Principals to bring the latest developments in the field of methodology to teachers' attention. In the conclusion to his article, Gray discussed the use of a Principal/teacher conference after each classroom observation. He suggested beginning the conference with a favorable statement and then encouraging the teacher to suggest improvements. Helping teachers analyze their own

effectiveness would be extremely valuable. Gray listed suggestions in critiquing a teacher,

1. The quality of a teacher's work should be discussed frequently by a supervisor who is competent to offer valid criticisms.

2. The supervisor should be guided by as clear-cut and definite aims in his criticism of a recitation as he expects his teachers to evidence in their teaching.

3. An expert criticism includes commendations of the strong features of a recitation with a clear discussion of the reason why the teaching is effective. The satisfaction which such a discussion brings to a teacher insures continued growth and future effectiveness. Constructive, appreciative criticisms will help the teacher to receive with open mind negative criticisms which may be needed to secure the elimination of weaknesses.

4. Criticisms may be as adverse as the situation demands, but they should always be constructive.

5. Criticisms should be carefully organized, clearly stated, and adequately supported by facts to carry conviction.

6. Criticisms should usually be offered in terms of a discussion rather than a lecture.

7. Criticisms of a teacher's work should be offered (in most cases) only after the lesson has been thoroughly and thoughtfully reviewed, and with a full knowledge of all the conditions under which the lesson was given (Gray, 1918: 35).

Thus, the work of defining supervision and the general role of the Elementary Principal was under way.

3.5 The Establishment of the Department of Elementary School Principals

The two factors in our schools that determine largely their measure of success are the Principal and the teacher. The Principal needs administrative ability and the qualities of leadership to inspire associates and to organize the

means of education which are at his/her command.

Superintendent Lewis N. Crane wrote, in 1905, in Education, that,

> The Principal should have ample opportunity for constructive work. In charge of a complete unit in our school system, he is in touch with the thought movement in the educational world and has intimate knowledge of the actual conditions that exist in the schoolroom. Relief from the responsibility of class instruction gives time for close and systematic observation and for study of the best theories concerning educational practice. Important as it may be that he properly make out reports, attend to the gradation of pupils, organize and direct the affairs of his school, the principal performs a far greater service when he is a source of helpful suggestion, a fountain of inspiration, and a wise advisor to his teachers (Vol. xxv: 413).

Principals, however, were slow as a group to take advantage of opportunities for professional leadership in the early twentieth century. Principals appeared content to continue doing clerical and routine work. This "backseat" approach to their profession continued until the year 1920, a bellweather year in the evolution of the Principalship. Under the guidance of the Department of Education and the University of Chicago a national organization of Elementary Principals was founded. This group, affiliated with the National Education Association, began to encourage Principals, themselves, to write about their profession, to study their profession, and to take the opportunity to further elevate and professionalize the Principalship. Prior to the establishment of The Elementary Principals Association, information about the Principalship originated

with Superintendents, school committee minutes, and individuals outside of the profession itself. It was not until the 1920s that information concerning the Principalship was actually written by principals.

Superintendent John Philbrick of Boston was the first Superintendent to publicly recognize the need for Principals to develop professionally. Once appointed to the Superintendency, Philbrick outlined two questions for Principals, "What has he done in his school?" and "What has he done outside his school?" (Pierce, 1935: 181).

Attempts to organize Principals before 1920 led to local clubs interested in the discussion of matters of instruction and discipline. The first recording of these clubs appeared in the Cincinnati and Chicago Superintendent reports dating as far back as 1870. Such associations were formed as well in Detroit (1894), and in Cleveland (1894) as Principal Round Tables in 1894. There was even a Detroit Women Principals' Club formed in 1911 (Pierce, 1935: 194).

Training for the Principalship after 1920 continued to be spotty. The oral exam of the early twentieth century required an expertise in teaching until Superintendents recognized that success in the classroom did not always equate to success in the Principalship. When this became apparent, professional study was introduced in colleges and universities (Weldy, 1979). Intellectual qualifications, teaching ability, an individual's general record and physical fitness played parts in the professionalization of

the Principalship. Superintendents of large city school systems called for the improvement of the Principalship professionally, citing three different professional fields. The first of these related to the subject matter of the elementary school, the second related to the philosophy of education, and the third related to training for the specific duties of the Principalship (Hillega, 1922). John Philbrick, Superintendent of Boston, in the late nineteenth century, wrote, "...Principals, as shapers of destiny, should themselves be wisely shaped" (Pierce, 1935: 156).

The Elementary Principals Association began, in 1920, to publish yearbooks. Principals contributed articles, research, and information to share with other Principals for the first time in the history of the profession. The authorship by Principals led to high standards being set professionally. Finally, Principals were assuming true professional status (Pierce, 1935).

The Principalship began to emerge now as a position of status in the overall plan for school system administration. The Principal's responsibilities began to be defined nationally and assumed three distinct tasks, supervisory duties, administrative duties, and clerical duties (Otto & Sanders, 1964).

The national organization of Elementary Principals not only defined the position, but continued to encourage more intensive study for position preparation. The emergence of national status fostered a look at salary, duties,

preparation and the ratio of men to women within the profession. Prior to 1900, women were Principals of primary schools or of girls' departments within grammar schools. By 1901 examples of the proportion of men Principals to women were:

Year	City	Men	Women	
1901	Chicago	112	115	(All High School Principals were men)
1909	Philadelphia	69	104	
1913	Philadelphia	76	104	

(Pierce, 1935: 173)

Although the numbers suggest that more women were employed as Principals, the real administrative power was with the male Grammar School Principals who supervised a number of women-led primary schools. When the primary school merged with the grammar school, men continued to wield most of the power. All high schools remained in the domain of male Principals. In St. Louis, the ratio of men to women between 1902 and 1916 was two to one. In 1905, an Assistant Superintendent was quoted in New York City as saying that in his opinion, in certain aspects of discipline, "...women Principals appeared to be more effective than men." He accounted for this through the great attention which women gave to detail, their "singleness of purpose" and their maternal sympathy for children in difficulty. Despite this "modern" philosophy toward women in the profession, married women still could

not work in the school system. Only single, widowed, or married women with husbands unable to work could be employed. The most flexible ruling was one which eventually stated that women Principals who chose to marry while employed could continue to keep their positions. In many city school systems women were recorded in service longer than their male counterparts. One explanation is that women usually worked their way up through the system, while men often entered from outside the system (Pierce, 1935: 173).

The professionalization of the Principalship forever changed the status of the position. The Elementary Principals Association continues today to represent Principals nationally by promoting salary equalization, status benefits, research, attention to professional challenges, and the overall improvement of the position relative to excellence in education. Principals must continue to improve themselves professionally by understanding the subject matter of the elementary school, the philosophy of education, and the specific duties of the Principalship. However, it is up to the professionalism of the individuals within the Principalship to foster growth and excellence in order to continue to be respected leaders within their buildings, school system, and community (Hillegas, 1922).

> Principals must assume the responsibilities of their position. The past has shown that no one will force supervision on the Principal if he is satisfied with clerical duties. He will find little difficulty in having such tasks absorb all his time and apparently he will be allowed to

devote his time to this work while others will be given the responsibilities of real leadership (Hillegas, 1922: 45).

C H A P T E R 4

THE MIDDLE YEARS OF THE PRINCIPALSHIP 1920-1960
THE MANAGEMENT YEARS

4.1 Introduction

Gone are the days of the agrarian society where the definition of school was, "...as a place where a little teacher, in a little house, for a little while and a little pay, teaches little children little things
(Sexson, 1938: 8).

As is the Principal, so is the school
(Cubberly, 1929: 294).

The decades 1920-1960 began with the professionalizing of the Principalship through the National Elementary School Principal's Association, a division of the National Education Association. Principals had been forming and organizing local professional clubs since the late nineteenth century. These clubs were significant in showing professional interest on the part of Principals, in providing unity and purpose to the work of the school system at large. However, these clubs were scattered among cities and localized (Pierce, 1935: 182). It was not until the formation of the national organization that the Principalship began its slow assent toward professionalism and strength as a leadership station within the school system.

The formation of the National Elementary School Principal's Association began in connection with the University of Chicago in 1920. A small group of Principals

began to organize a Department of Elementary Principals within the National Education Association. At that time the Principal was still considered a "Head Teacher." Supervision often continued to be conducted by central office staff. The organization, for the first time since the development of the position of Principal, directed itself toward professional improvement. They identified the Principal with a position of leadership and began to research topics pertinent to that profession, collecting data and inviting Principals to contribute with their own writings and research (Morrison, 1931). It is within the monthly journals of The National Elementary Principal, beginning in 1921, that most of the documentation about the evolution of the position is recorded through articles and editorials. The decades 1920-1960 are years when the notion of professional leadership, ideals, and standards were presented within the journals. Yet the actual position of Principal continued to be managerial, administrative, and clerical in nature (McClure, 1921: 735). The majority of articles emphasized that the Principal ought to be head of a school and be primarily responsible for the supervisory direction of the instructional activities of the teachers (Morrison, 1931). In reality, however, the Principalship continued to struggle to define its role in the scheme of educational leadership (Green, 1934).

Many societal and educational milestones marked the decades of 1920 through 1960. This chapter will focus on

those milestones, as they impacted the evolving role of the Principal. Societal milestones were marked by the Depression years, the World War II years, and the post World War II years. Each directly affected the educational climate, instructionally and organizationally. Other major influences of the time included advancements in communication and transportation, and population changes (Dawson, 1956).

During the years 1900-1950 enormous advances were made in communication. In 1900 there were 1.3 million telephones; by 1956 there were 50 million telephones. In 1900, there was no single magazine circulation greater than one million; by 1956, 38 magazines had circulations greater than one million. In the 1920s, radio was influencing politics and distributing news at an ever faster pace; by the 1950s, television began to overshadow radio as the communication link to news (Dawson, 1956: 32).

Transportation breakthroughs changed the American way of life in extraordinary ways increasing mobility and affording development of communities that linked city with country life. In 1900, 13,824 automobiles were registered in the United States. This early surge in automobile ownership spawned the need for a network of highways and service stations, a major petroleum industry, and the development of suburbs. In 1900, the thought of man flying in airplanes was a dream only. By World War I, planes were

flying in defense of the American way of life (Dawson, 1956: 32).

Population demographics dramatically shifted during these decades. In 1900, America's population stood at 76 million. From 1920 to 1960, there was a major population shift from farms to cities. By 1956, the American population stood at 167 million (Dawson, 1956: 33).

Educational milestones included 1) the trend toward scientific study (1920s) which led to the use of standardized testing, the focus on the science of organization, the psychology of the work place, and the science of human relations in the work place from an industrial perspective; 2) the democratic leadership roles of administrators in a post World War II era; 3) the leadership theories of the late 1950s.

4.2 Pre-Depression Years

Under the guidance of the Department of Education at the University of Chicago, the early years of the National Association of Elementary School Principals focused attention on the scientific study of the problems of the Principalship position and stimulated interest in the Principalship as an important position (Goldman, 1966).

4.2.1 The Science of Administration

During the decade of the 1920s there were many attempts to define the Principalship scientifically in order to dignify and provide value to the position. During the World War I years standardized testing had come into vogue. In

order to legitimize something it was important to define it as a science. Thus, any supervision of the Principal or by the Principal was expected to be scientific in nature, involving use of graphs and statistics. Supervision was defined as the scientific technique for improving teaching.

The Principalship was seen as a position with a geographic location, i.e., a school, and as a position independent of the person filling it. Many definitions served to describe the Principalship. Three major "approaches" were outlined by Otto and Sanders (1966). The first was the Duties and Administration Approach which defined the position by the duties, required tasks, and by the optional tasks (Otto & Sanders, 1966: 346). The second approach was the Job Specifications Approach which sought to define the Principalship by 1) inventorying all the duties performed by a majority of Principals; 2) reviewing job specifications provided by the majority of Superintendents' offices; and 3) reviewing school committee regulations and legal prescriptions. The third approach was Role Expectations which defined the Principalship by expectations of various groups and individuals. Role was defined as a set of expectations (Otto & Sanders, 1966: 348).

The Elementary School Principals Association spent its early years defining the position of the Principalship. Universities were offering courses and training to study the Principal's job as well. Study topics included duties and functions, the documentation of use of time on the job, the

study of delegation, and the study of characteristics of the typical individual who held the position.

Harold D. Fillers categorized managerial duties of the Principal as clerical, control, inspectorial, and coordinative (School Review 1923). Edward Stanton conducted time studies of office routines (Elementary School Journal, 1927). Fred Ayers, in "The Duties of Public School Administrators" studied value preferences assigned by Principals and Superintendents to various administrative duties. He felt that in order for the Principalship to gain legitimacy as a position of leadership, there needed to be more understanding of administrative procedure (American School Board Journal, 1930: 6).

During the 1920s the format for school organization was often examined. Cubberly, in his book The Principal and His School (1923), details the various types of organizations.

> The simplest form is the village or city elementary-school principalship, the principal being in charge of a small building containing from eight to twenty teachers in charge of the different school grades. The following organization for a twelve-room elementary-school building may be regarded as fairly typical of that found in many towns and cities in different parts of the United States.
>
> 1 principal, not teaching.
> 12 teachers, in charge of grades, as follows:
>
> | | |
> |---|---|
> | 1. Kindergarten | 7. 4B and 4A |
> | 2. Receiving class, and 1B | 8. 4A and 5B |
> | 3. 1B and 1A | 9. 5B and 5A |
> | 4. 2B and 2A | 10. 6B and 6A |
> | 5. 2A and 3B | 11. 7B and 7A |
> | 6. 3A | 12. 8B and 8A |
>
> 1 school janitor
> Average daily attendance, about 400 pupils (1923:6).

Cubberly reported that a student population of 1800 would have been fairly representative of many cities which had a total population of from 15,000 to 18,000. Such a city might have had three or four elementary school buildings similar to the organization described above with an additional two or three smaller buildings in which the individual Principals may have also taught (1923: 6).

In a typical Massachusetts manufacturing city, Cubberly wrote that one third of the teaching force and one third of the pupils of the city may have been in one elementary school building, with the following teaching and supervisory force:

> Administrative Force- 1 Principal, 1 Assistant Principal, 1 Sub-Master, 1 Assistant to the Principal, 1 Office Clerk, and 2 Janitors.
> Teaching Force- 43 teachers and 11 special teachers (1923: 7).

In addition to the Non-Teaching and Teaching Principal, Cubberly described the position of Group or Supervising Principal. In such a situation a group of schools was placed under the immediate control of a Supervising Principal who looked after the details of administration of the buildings and supervised all the schools in his/her group. The Principal was assisted by Vice-Principals in each of the buildings. The Vice-Principals usually taught a class and had no supervisory role and few administrative duties. In small cities which had a number of small school buildings, it may have been economically prudent to have one Principal

in charge of all buildings in the group plan described above (Cubberly, 1923: 11).

Cubberly designed many interesting possibilities for efficient organization of schools. He detailed clusters of schools supervised by group Principals and administered by building Principals (Cubberly, 1923: 14).

Despite such organizational ideas, as the 1920s ended, the Principal emerged as a technician in education. University training reflected a managerial and scientific orientation toward school administration. Practical skills were stressed such as school construction, budgeting, and pupil accounting (Goldman, 1966: 7).

4.2.2 Managerial Leadership

Although the articles and editorials in the Elementary School Principals Association reflected an interest and dedication toward leadership functions for the position of Principal, the majority of Principals in the United States remained, functionally, managers during the 1920s (McClure, 1921; Department of Elementary Principals, 1921). It was generally recognized that the greater part of the Principal's time was taken up with clerical matters and duties relating to the management of the school. Supervision, although ranked first in importance by the National Association and by educational authors of the time, received, in actual practice, very little of the total day's time (Fillers, 1923: 48).

H. D. Fillers, in the 1923 School Review, presented a paper reporting the results of an investigation by the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools regarding the way Principals spent their day. Although the Secondary School Principal was the model, it is an interesting account which should be applicable to the Elementary School Principal as well.

Duties	Number of Minutes
Inspection of building	40
Supervision of instruction	40-60
Teaching	90
Study hall	40
Office routine	60
Teacher conferences	30
Pupil conferences	30
Conferences with callers	30
Student activities	30
Civic life	30

(Fillers, 1923: 51)

Fillers proposed studying the duties of the Principal and delegating routine tasks to clerical workers. Even in this situation, however, it would be necessary to increase the hours in the Principal's day to insure sufficient supervisory time. Filler's proposal was to increase the day from seven hours to eight hours (52).

The years prior to the Depression were ones of promise for the position of Principal. Although the position had not achieved its goal of supervisory importance, those working at the national level continued to acclaim the Principalship as the position with the greatest potential in the school system (Department of Elementary School

Principals, 1922: 3; Pierce, 1935). The goal of the Principals' Association was to lessen the importance of the central office supervisors in their role of supervision. The appeal was that the real professional head and leader in an elementary school should be the Principal of that school. The assumption was that with the building Principal as the rightful head of a school teachers would work productively with a common aim and with an internal consistency (Hillegas, 1922: 44; Cubberly, 1923).

Cubberly, in his book, The Principal and His School (1923), voiced concerns that although emphasis was beginning to be placed upon not only organizational duties but also administrative, supervisory and social duties, most Principals continued to spend a majority of time on the organizational and administrative duties. Cubberly was concerned that too many Principals continued to be "office Principals." A chief complaint by many Principals was that they spent too much time on statistical work which should be done by a clerk. The Principal must be the organizer who thinks out the methods of doing these things so that the clerk can handle details in an effective way (West, 1925: 24). Classroom visitation was a most important task being promoted by many (Cubberly, 1923; Pierce, 1935).

> ...the supervision of instruction...is the prime purpose of freeing the Principal from teaching, and is the end and goal toward which the organization and administration of the school should tend (Cubberly, 1923: 42).

4.2.3 Demographics

Although the emphasis from the National Principals Organization was placed upon professionalizing the Principalship as a leadership position, preparation for the Principalship continued to take a managerial focus at the university level. The national organization struggled to differentiate "teaching" from "principaling" amidst a reality of managerial duties and administrative tasks. School districts varied in their selection criteria. Some districts continued to use the criterion of successful teaching as the sole determiner of adequacy for the Principalship. College training was often cited as a criterion, however the course of study did not necessarily require an educational component. Larger city school districts began, in the 1920s, to seek individuals with educational training for the Principalship, however this requirement was not mandatory (Brinkerhoff, 1927: 47).

Overall, there was little change in the appointment process for principals from pre-World War I days. Principals were generally chosen from the teaching ranks. Large cities continued to develop eligibility lists and Superintendents made nominations from the list. In some cities examinations were required in conjunction with an evaluation of past teaching performance (Pierce, 1935).

The National Elementary School Principals Association continued to promote the different requirements for success in the classroom and in the running of an entire school.

During the 1920s, teaching preparation included a completed normal school course. The Association's drive was to view the Principalship as a profession requiring many other qualifications beyond successful teaching. Proposals for the preparation of Principals included four years of college, four additional years of college education preparation, and several years of teaching experience. George Brinkerhoff, Principal of the Webster Street School in Newark, New Jersey, wrote in the Seventh Association Yearbook that the Principalship should be likened to the medical profession. Physicians were required to spend four years in college, four years in medical school, and one to two years in an internship. He felt that the Principalship required nothing less than that prestigious background in order to professionalize the position (Brinkerhoff, 1927: 47).

In addition to preparation proposals, the Principals Association began to document other demographics. One such area of interest was the ratio of men to women in the position. Many city systems kept a separate list of men and women candidates and chose according to aforementioned factors. Reavis, Pierce, and Stullkin in their book <u>The Elementary School Its Organization and Administration</u>, stressed that, "The elementary Principal must be fitted to deal with women and young children" (1931: 469). The authors felt that much of the Principal's time was spent

dealing with a majority of women as teachers and that most home contacts were with the mother.

In a sampling of data from 614 schools it was reported, in the Seventh Annual Yearbook, that 45% of Supervising Principals were men and 55% were women. The median age for men was forty-three and for women, forty-eight (Reavis, Pierce & Stullken, 1931: 426). In cities of under 10,000 population, male Principals were ten years younger than their female counterparts. In larger cities the age of Principals, male and female, was slightly older and individuals had more educational experience. In smaller communities men were more likely to become Principals at a younger age and women were more likely to be older and more mature (Reavis, Pierce & Stullken, 1931: 427).

The ratio of men to women in the Principalship appears to have varied according to district, population type, and type of community, i.e., urban, rural. Although the Seventh Annual Yearbook survey indicated a larger percentage of women Elementary Principals, the statistics for New York City cited the following data for new appointments: 1928 - fourteen men, four women; 1929 - fifteen men, eleven women 1930 - twelve men, eight women; 1931 - seventeen men, fifteen women. St. Louis reported a ratio of two to one in favor of men during the early part of the 1920s (Pierce, 1935: 175).

Salaries were graphed by the Association. Supervising Principals received higher salaries than Teaching

Principals. The salary range varied from city to city and from town to town. However, in 1931, reports from 88 cities of over 1,000 population across the United States showed that 579 Teaching Principals received salaries ranging from 1,600-3,800 with the median being 2,436. Supervising Principals' salaries ranged from 1,600-7,000 with a median of 3,519 (Reavis, Pierce, & Stullken, 1931: 478).

4.3 The Depression Years

The decade of the 1920s had been one of great hopes for the future of the Principalship. Educational leaders were writing about leadership opportunities, the upgrading of courses of study for Principalship preparation, and organizational reforms. In conjunction with this optimism in leadership opportunities, educationally, elementary school programs were broadening. Playgrounds and gymnasiums were added to building plans. Expanding curriculum took into account a new world order in the post World War I years (Otto & Sanders, 1966).

The 1930s marked a major milestone in educational administrative philosophy. Beginning with the economic depression a philosophy of education emerged from the work of industrial psychologists and sociologists interested in the study of organizations and of individuals within the organizations. Contributors included Mary Park Follett who brought into sharper focus the psychological aspects of administration, Elton Mayo and Fritz Roethlisberger who cited the importance of human relations in administration,

Chester Barnard, who focused administration toward relationships with groups and individuals within an organization, and Herbert Simon who studied the possibilities of a value free science of administration (Goldman, 1966: 8; Morris, Crowson, Porter-Gehrie, & Hurwitz, 1984). The application of these theories developed very slowly over time. However, amidst the deprivation of the times, the human relations movement had wide appeal intellectually, contrasting with the scientific management era of the early twentieth century. This human relations movement was "people centered" during a decade of deprivation. The substance of the movement was that employees were to be motivated by people with skill in communication, interaction, and conflict management. Employees were to be led toward good performance by a more democratic management. The leader and the followers were to be brought into productive harmony. The task of management was to integrate all within the organization into a cooperative whole. Democratic methods of school management were the ideal, a sharing of decision making with teachers. This human relations model had major implications for the preparation of individuals for the Principalship. It meant university courses of study aimed at training managers to be democratic leaders. The Principal was to be a friendly advisor and consultant to his staff (Morris et al., 1984: 8). Thus, began the slow assent toward what today is termed "shared leadership." Although the concept and theory were

in vogue, the actual realistic presence of such a Principal would take decades to realize.

Amidst such lofty designs for education was an environment seemingly in shambles. The economic Depression of the 1930s manifested itself educationally in the school population itself. Approximately eight million children under sixteen years of age were on relief roles. Many parents were out of work. The school began to play a larger role in the lives of children. In the early years of public education, formal schooling focused on the "three Rs" and prepared boys and girls for man- and womanhood as vessels to be filled with knowledge. The education emerging from the Depression years assumed a greater responsibility for the lives of girls and boys and provided for their physical needs via physical education, their aesthetic needs via art and music, their nutritional needs via the emergence in the 1930s of the school lunch program, and, in short, began to recognize the "estate of childhood," the development of character, physical health, and social adjustment (Stoddard, 1935: 31; "Official Report of the Convention," 1935: 35; Spain, 1935: 235). The assumption was that children should be allowed to be children and not little adults. This concept called for sweeping changes in disciplinary procedures and an environment which catered to the child. Knowledge, alone, would not be enough to educate the children of the world. For the first time, elements of critical and creative thinking were emulated for public

school education. Children were to be active participants not passive vessels receiving knowledge (Stoddard, 1935: 31). Given the times of a reduced economic standard of living, the doctrine of "everyone for himself" shifted toward a stress on the ideals of democracy, cooperation for the good of all. This doctrine seemed absolute given the stress and deprivation experienced by children during the Depression years (Bland, 1935: 21; "Official Report of the Convention," 1935).

The Principalship was definitely affected by the climate of the times. Once again, leadership was called for. During the depression years leadership was coupled with a service model to the community. "A school society needs leadership with the idea of leadership always coupled with service" (Bland, 1935: 21). Leadership was to be modelled by the Principal and emulated by teachers who would provide their students with opportunities to participate in service to others. The good work ethic emerged and for the first time the school was expected to take into account the wider world beyond the school yard and to become part of the community (Bland, 1935: 22).

The Principal's role was idealized as that of a responsible, thinking leader of a responsible self-respecting, thinking staff. The Principal was the leader of this staff, but one who worked together with staff to determine the philosophy and program of a building.

The Principal's role was to be supportive and helpful to teachers, to assist teachers in developing their expertise. The Principal was expected often to provide inservice opportunities. Once again, while visions of lofty leadership were expressed in journals and at conventions, conferences, etc., the economic realities for most school districts were grim, indeed. While Principals were expected to be supportive to staff needs, the realities of most communities were that Principals were faced with lower salaries, little money for inservice training, and increasing employment shortages in the classroom. Many Principals had to assume more teaching responsibilities, thus decreasing the ability to carry out the hard won role of supervisor (Hale, 1936: 18).

Given the ideal vision of the Principalship and the grim reality of the economic times, fear began to increase in educational circles that, in fact, the Principalship had taken a step backwards. Those actively involved in the National Elementary School Principals Association feared that Principals would lose sight of professional leadership roles. The increase of Teaching Principals, defined as those Principals who do any regular classroom teaching, threatened the responsibility of supervision (Hale, 1936: 19).

4.3.1 Vision Versus Reality

The position of Principal was caught in contrast between the intellectual vision of what the position could

and should be versus the reality of what it continued to be in most school districts. It is most probable that the leadership role of the Principal depended upon the Superintendent and school committee and upon economic realities. As often occurs in education, decisions are not based as often upon sound educational philosophy as they are based upon economic and political constraints. Although the Principal was cited as the real leader of his/her school, most vision came through writings of the National Association of Elementary School Principals. Since few Principals were authoring books, the monthly Journal of the National Association served as the mouth piece for Principals.

The position of Principal appears to have changed but little from the teens through the 1930s. However, the world around had changed dramatically. Though the machine age had begun to lift people from the drudgeries of daily life and survival, the economic retrenchment of the 1930s caused a step backward in supervisory responsibilities for some Principals. The position survived the Depression, however, and the world continued to change technologically with great rapidity. The increasing ownership of the automobile effected the limits of neighborhood, film and radio brought the world closer, and labor saving machinery freed mothers from life's daily toils (Mason, 1934; Morrison, 1935).

4.3.2 Demographics

During the 1930s background requirements for the Principalship continued to be diverse. During the winter of 1934, questionnaires from the National Principal's Association were sent to the Superintendents of 93 cities with populations of 100,000 or over. The findings were that all but 20 of the reporting cities required at least four years of college training, bachelors and masters degrees were specified in 26 of the cities. Prior teaching experience was valued but many cities did not specify an amount. The chart below records the findings:

Years of Experience Required	Number of Reporting Cities
No Information	2
No Stipulation of Years	41
2-4 Years	20
5 Years	14
6-10 Years	11

(Churchill, Otto 1936, p. 198).

Many cities continued to require exams of perspective candidates. The results of these exams were used to compile eligibility lists. There were many factors for consideration in regard to the eligibility lists. Of the cities contacted, the following table shows the requirement and the number of cities utilizing the requirement:

General Requirement	Number of Contacted Cities
Age	17
Citizenship	11
Medical Certificate	16
Moral Character	6

Marriage Status of the Woman	5
Sex Gender	2
Residence	4

(Churchill & Otto, 1936: 201)

Age requirements varied from a minimum of 18 years to a maximum of 50 years for a new appointment. Sex/Gender referred to the separate eligibility lists of men and women. Marriage status was important in some districts. No married woman applicant would be considered unless she was entirely self-supporting or could furnish proof of a legal separation from spouse. Married women, already permanently assigned, were exempt. In many cases states did not require special certification requirements but left this up to the cities (Churchill & Otto, 1935: 201).

In many school districts the Principal continued to be tied to the office with part of his/her job specified as clerical. In 1927, as reported by the Sixth Yearbook of the National Elementary School Principal's Association, questionnaires were sent to all Superintendents of Schools with a city population of 75,000 and over. Forty-eight replies were received from twenty-six states reflecting conditions regarding clerical help in elementary schools. It was reported that 38% of these reporting schools had full-time clerks, 10% had part time clerks, and 52% had no clerks at all. Thus, in 52% of the reporting elementary schools the Principal continued to be a glorified clerk. In a national survey conducted by Columbia University, it was

reported that Elementary Principals spent 39% of their time doing clerical chores (McGill, 1927: 230).

The Depression years exacted a toll on the Principalship. Salaries were reduced nation-wide. Principals were extensively involved with economic relief programs (Reynolds, 1934: 83). Leadership and service were viewed as models for students. Such a social image was seen as a way to maintain good work ethic during a time of economic crisis (Bland, 1935: 22). The handicaps facing Principals during the Depression continued to be those of increasing teaching duties, tremendous stress of the economic climate with its increasing child welfare demands placed upon the school, the continuation of clerical tasks as representative of the position, and eroding salaries. The few positive outcomes of the Depression era were the sharing of administrative and supervisory responsibilities with staff and the increased participation of teachers in school management (Evans, 1937).

Asked what teachers expected of a Principal, Ben Graham, the Superintendent of Schools in Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, reported from a survey he conducted, that teachers expected the Principal to have the ability to plan an organization for the school year with steps and procedures, to classify students, to secure materials necessary for teachers to do their work, to present to the school board and to the Superintendent the needs of the school, to be a competent "social engineer" who is able to

understand human characteristics of teachers, students, and parents, to be a support to teachers, to be a skillful evaluator, to be skillful at testing students, and to have the personal characteristics of being friendly, openly supportive, and one who is growing professionally (Graham, 1939: 14) - a tall order for any individual.

4.4 The World War II Years

The World War II years did not change the nature of the Principalship so much as it impacted societal goals for education. During this time of crisis when the American way of life was being threatened, the challenge to the Principal was "...to preserve and extend American democracy by leading in the development of an education which is powerful to do that job" (McNally, 1949: 13). Protecting the democratic values of American society became all pervasive during the war effort. School Principals with their close, daily contact with students, parents, and teachers were in the best position to see and influence the entire education program in a school building. Principals faced the challenge of adjusting the school program to war emergency needs without sacrificing the long-range values of a solid universal education. Worth McClure, Superintendent of Schools in Seattle, Washington cited various exemplary standards by which a good school could be evaluated. His standards included four major points:

1. The good school has an affirmative attitude toward its community.

2. The good school provides for the continuing growth of individuals.
3. The good school cultivates an appreciation of the American heritage.
4. The good school cultivates competent democratic citizenship.

McClure described an affirmative attitude, his first standard, as one where the school is conscious that it is an integral part of its community. Isolationism would be a goal of the past. McClure wrote that, "Today's Principal will consciously use all means at his command to know and utilize his community's educational resources" (McClure, 1943: 134). The Principal, during the war years had to deal with the community need to use the school for rationing coupon distribution. The school, then, was open to the public. Dale Carnegie said, "If you want to make a friend, ask him to help you" (McClure, 1943: 135). The school Principal who made rationing a community project began to demystify the daily practices of education to the public. McClure's second standard, the continuing growth of teachers, suggests that the Principal will assign teachers to classes and projects with an open eye to the individual needs and aptitudes of each teacher. Once again the ideal of democracy was highlighted as a process for effective administration. Supervision was expected to aim for a cooperative effort. It was felt by McClure that teachers who have this type of leadership would know how to apply it

to the cultivation of the growth of children. McClure's third standard, an appreciation of the American heritage, expects that the Principal will be conscious of America's position in the "...great procession of human progress" (McClure, 1943: 136). The meaning should be clear to all in a school building transmitted from Principal to teacher to pupil, that the democratic way of living is not an easy one and must be defended through knowledge and practice. Students should have an opportunity to experience the process of democracy and to know that democracy, as Gilbert K. Chesterton replied to Woodrow Wilson's call to make the world safe for democracy, "...is a dangerous trade" (McClure, 1943: 136).

This endeavor to teach children about the preservation of a democratic way of life was the impetus for American society to realize that the present and the future of civilization is technological, "...and that only as democracy masters technology can she fight on even terms" (McClure, 1943: 136). Educationally, this translated into an emphasis on mathematics and sciences. The Principal would now be called upon to transmit this emphasis to teachers and through teachers to students.

Principals who were comfortable in managerial roles were not generally effective in bringing about change. They concentrated on running the day to day business of the building. However, during the World War II years, Principals were called upon to be effective leaders in

supporting democratic values through curriculum revisions. This was one of the first times Principals were called upon to take charge of such revisions. By the end of the 1940s, Principals were on the "cutting edge" of being asked to really begin assuming leadership responsibilities. Change is slow to happen. While the change from administrative to leadership roles occurred gradually, one great impetus appeared to be World War II and its subsequent post-War climate. Principals were, in theory, being asked to assume leadership to promote staff creativity, to increase student achievement, to provide leadership in the community, and to be educational adventurers and scholars. The Principal was accountable for teaching students not only facts, but also how to use their knowledge for the betterment of the world (McNally, 1949; McClure, 1950: 18).

The educational trend as the decade of the 1950s emerged focussed on better training through scientific research, and for children to be schooled in civic responsibility (McClure, 1946).

4.4.1 Demographics

While the Principal was being called upon to finally emerge as a leader for change, an examination of salary increments revealed a different story. According to a report from the National Education Association (NEA) Research Division in 1945, the cost of living between January, 1941 and September, 1944 for city teachers increased about 31%, while for rural teachers the increase was about 35%.

Meanwhile, teachers' salaries in the nation as a whole had risen, on average 15% or less. Actual purchasing power decreased, on average, about 14% (The National Elementary Principal, 1945: 4). The highest paid Supervising Principal's salary reported to the NEA Research Division was $8,000. This salary was far ahead of the next in line, which was reported to be $7,780. A block of 190 Principals was paid about $7,000. These were the top incomes reported for Principals employed in four of the largest cities in the United States. Most Principals received lower salaries (The National Elementary Principal, 1945: 14). A survey conducted by the National Association of Elementary School Principals divided salary groups by population. The results showed that in Group I (cities over 100,000 in population) the middle 50% of Supervising Pprincipals were being paid salaries between $3,300 and $4,500. The median for 3715 Principals was $3,772. The 1,403 Supervising Principals in Group II (Cities 30,000-100,000 in population) showed a median of $2,880. The middle 50% fell between $2,450 and $3,500. Salaries for Teaching Principals averaged $500-$700 less than those of Supervising Principals in each of the city groups with the exception of Group I. In Group I, there was a low number of Teaching Principals and unusually high salaries were paid to Teaching Principals in one of the largest cities (The National Elementary Principal, 1945: 15). The NEA (National Education Association) further reported, in its February, 1945 issue, that the salaries of

Elementary School Principals recovered less from the economic depression of the 1930s than the salaries of classroom teachers (The National Elementary Principal, 1945: 16).

In terms of clerical support, Principals during the decade of the 1940s who had developed leadership status were those who had been freed from routine tasks by clerical assistants. Further support for Principal leadership was provided by Assistant Principals and reinforced by various types of special assistants such as visiting teachers, psychologists, nurses, etc. The presence of these support individuals was a measure to increase and enrich the educational opportunities for children. Most schools, however, continued to lack such support individuals. In 1928, a study by the National Association of Elementary School Principals reported that half the schools under Supervising Principals, in cities above 500,000 in population, had Assistant Principals. Below this population group, 10-20% of the schools provided Assistant Principals. About 10% of schools below 600 in enrollment reported assistants. Schools between 600 and 999 enrollment reported 25% with assistants. Schools which enrolled 1,000 or more reported that 63% had Assistant Principals (National Association of Elementary School Principals, February 1939: 55).

Beyond the Assistant Principal, the most important personnel need was the clerk. This type of assistant would

not only free Principals from most routine tasks, but also lift from classroom teachers many of the burdens of keeping records and copying instructional materials.

4.4.2 School Size

The average school headed by a Supervising Principal was reported to have enrolled 570 students with 18 teachers, making class sizes approximately 32 students per teacher. On average, Teaching Principals had schools of 254 students with eight teachers. Again, the average class size was approximately thirty-two students per teacher (National Association of Elementary Principals February, 1939: 54).

4.5 Post World War II Years

The decade from 1950-1960 reflected a nation home from war. The defeat of Germany and Japan by the Allied forces changed the international world order. This decade reflected the return of young soldiers home to wives and girl friends, ready to take part in the American dream of a family, home, and opportunity to earn a living. Internationally, the Cold War began between the U.S.S.R. (United Socialist Soviet Republic) and the United States. Competition between the two powerful nations involved the educational system. Studies of math and science became extremely important in public education. Great pressure was placed upon teachers and students to perform. Many new math and science programs were developed at the university level and placed upon the public education system.

The large number of soldiers returning home and starting families led to increases in the public school population. The newly coined phrase "baby boomers" was to have major implications for public education in the years to follow (Howard, 1958).

The country marched to a vision of upholding a democratic way of life. This was a continuation and extension of the Depression and post-Depression years when democratic ideals and civic responsibility were touted. The immediate impact in the educational world involved changing the science and math curriculum. Sarah Lou Hammond expressed this curriculum change in the context of the history of public education. She described changes in education as changes in practice which follow changes of purpose. She cited the Latin Grammar School in the 1600s with its emphasis on the studies of Latin and Greek. The purpose of such studies was to prepare young men for the ministry. As trade increased, both domestically and internationally, and as business became more complex the 1800s "Academy" appeared on the education horizon. Math and other practical subjects were offered to students. The Ministry was no longer the sole purpose of education. New technology continued to develop, international politics became a main concern. Social situations changed and whenever such changes occur they effect the instructional focus of the public schools. The decade of 1950-1960 was no

exception. The curriculum of the schools would be subject to the political and social issues of the time (1956: 13).

4.5.1 The Baby-Boomers

The post-war decade brought changes to society. Greater mobility translated into leaving one's roots to start a life. The population of school children increased at a rapid rate. There was a more crucial need to heed and appreciate individual differences. A focus on the education and development of exceptional and gifted and talented children increased. Children requiring different types of educational strategies led to the development of special needs programs for learning disabilities. The 1950s was an era of increased television viewing by children and adults. Polio shots were a relief from the polio scare of the early 1950s. The number of houses required to serve the needs of a growing population brought the development of prefabricated housing and preprocessed products (Howard, 1958).

In 1957 an event occurred that would change the nature of the curriculum for years to come. The Soviet Union launched a satellite into space entering the United States into the space age and exacerbating the Cold War. The launching of Sputnik affected the subjects of math, science, and reading. There was a concern that children be educated for a future which could no longer be predicted. The emphasis affectively was to educate children to make sound decisions for international well being. Educators were being asked to provide a curriculum designed to motivate

future citizens to create a "dynamic world society." Changes occurred in rapid succession. The world was now exposed to cake mixes, atomic power, antibiotics, drip-dry clothing, space travel, television, and electronics (McSwain, 1950; Howard, 1958).

4.5.2 The Principalship

The educational focus on democratic schools enlisted the Principal to reach out to the community to help educate its citizens to the needs of a modern post war world. The Principal, once again, was seen as the key to change within a school. "What the Principal believes about children, how they grow and learn determines much of what the school does. The Principal would evaluate the demands for change and determine the appropriate action" (Beach, 1956; Hammond, 1956: 13). The Principal, in educating the public, could help citizens understand the need for small class sizes, understand how the shortage of good, qualified teachers would effect the educational climate, and how important it would be to maintain and increase the school facilities.

The years of anti-Communist feelings translated into the message that those who criticize modern education and wish a return to rote learning and severe discipline were, in fact, enemies of democracy. So began the rise of critical and creative thinking in the educational curriculum (McSwain, 1950: 4).

> For what cultural age should the curriculum prepare pupils?... Good schools are society's agents in developing the mental and moral competencies essential in continuing the nation's

> progress in demonstrating to the world the values of political and economic democracy (McSwain, 1950: 5).

Principal leadership continued to emerge as a key to change. In the past the Principal took pride in efficiently running his/her school. Society's attention to special needs individuals required the Principal to reallocate time to meet the changing curriculum and space needs. The Soviet Union's launch of a satellite triggered the United States' passing of the National Defense Education Act (NDEA) in 1958 amounting to a mandate for educators to promote more quality instruction in the sciences, math and modern foreign languages. Principals were required to develop educational plans and submit applications for NDEA funds (Blome & James, 1985: 48). Now the Principal was truly being thrust into the role of curriculum leader. Leadership was defined as,

> A name for those activities that are seen by individuals or groups as helping or potentially helping to provide the means they desire to use to identify or attain their goals" (Mackenzie, 1954: 21). This role necessitated knowledge of child growth and development, staff development, and the ability to view staff as peers, adults skilled and experienced (Mitchell, 1950; Beach, 1956).

The role of the Principal was seriously changing into the role of coordinator, consultant, and in-service educational leader. Frank Stallings, a Principal in Kentucky, wrote that education should serve two purposes: 1) To develop to the fullest extent potentialities of the individuals; 2) To understand and seek to promote the welfare of our society (1950: 13).

The good administrator was not so much judged on his/her ability to make others work as he/she was on his/her ability to make others want to work (Crane, 1956: 21; Otto, & Sanders, 1966). The Principal's major role resided in decision making, administrative change, morale building, and communicating. In discharging these functions, he/she utilized administrative processes such as planning, organizing, supervising, coordinating, staffing, delegating, and evaluating. The Principal's ability to develop a vision of his/her role and competence in utilizing appropriate administrative processes determined his/her success as a school leader (Hagman, 1956; Mill, 1956; Otto & Sanders, 1966: 387). Mackenzie (1954: 22) cited three criteria for good leadership: 1) The leader must meet the needs and preferences of group members; 2) The leader must utilize what is known about human motivation by relating activity and its consequences so that the efforts of members of a working group are intrinsically not extrinsically motivated; 3) The leader must elicit the maximum contribution of each member of the problem solving group.

4.5.3 Demographics

By the decade of the 1950s, most Principals were supervisory. There were, however, a number of Teaching Principals still in existence. In the article, "Are Teaching Principals a Vanishing Race?" by Frank W. Hubbard (1953), he reported the NEA Research Division's definition of a Teaching Principal as any Principal who gave less than

half of his/her time to supervision (51% or more given to classroom teaching). The following chart was compiled by Hubbard (1953: 27).

Years	Number of Teaching Principals	Number of Supervisory Principals
1932-1933	7,682	7,449
1942-1943	7,040	8,542
1952-53	4,923	14,651

As the years went on, the number of Teaching Principals continued to decline as the position of Principal demanded more than half time commitment. Educational background was increasingly important as a basis for selection. As more teachers sought more advanced qualification, it behooved Principals to match and go beyond the staff credentials in order to be perceived as someone who could lead the school into the decade of the 1960s (Hagman, 1956). By 1948, the typical Principal had earned a Masters Degree (Forester, 1954: 35). By 1958, the median Supervising Principal had a Masters Degree, 7.4 years of experience, 536 students in his/her school, and a median salary of $6,600. The median Teaching Principal in 1956-57 had completed a Bachelors Degree, had been a Principal for 5.7 years, and had an enrollment of 218 students in his/her school. His/Her median salary was $4,737. The High School Principal continued to receive higher pay than the Elementary School Principal (The NEA Research Division, 1958: 131).

During the 1950s the United States emerged from World War II as a world leader. Major societal changes were

thrust upon the country. Education had to face many shifts in its belief about the value of education. The next generation would need to be prepared for a future of technological advances. The Principalship finally was called upon to really exert leadership. Those Principals who maintained a management tradition were slowly overtaken by Principals eager to begin to share in the leadership of a school. "It is at the instructional level that the Elementary School Principalship must justify itself as a profession" (National Elementary Principals Association Journal, 1955: 7).

C H A P T E R 5

THE LEADERSHIP YEARS 1960-PRESENT

5.1 Introduction

...leadership is keeping head in the clouds, feet on the ground, and hoping like hell that it all works
(Barth, 1980: 193).

The decades 1960-present represent an accumulation of major changes in the organization and structure of elementary schools. Leaving a period of great economic depression and moving into a second world war the United States was catapulted from international isolation to a world power. The rivalry with the Soviet Union, beginning in the late 1940s, caused the United States to direct attention to its education system, especially in the areas of math, science, and foreign languages. During these shifting times the inner structure of the elementary school was changing. American schools have often lagged behind societal changes, but they have been significantly influenced by them (Murfin, 1961).

The Elementary School Principal of the 1960s found great social programs that were attentive to urbanization, civil rights, increasing mobility, higher standards of material living, more working mothers, and an increasing elementary school student population. Knowledge through experimental psychology, the increased use of standardized tests, and the continued professionalization of teachers added to the notion that the ...elementary school is

interwoven in the "warp and woof" of American life. It is impossible to distinguish cause from effect in surveying changes in the elementary school (Murfin, 1961: 9).

The 1960s and 1970s were decades of a great experiment in society to rid the country of poverty, to increase the equality of opportunity to all cultural, ethnic, and racial groups in the United States. The era led to a time of anger and disillusionment as these programs were unable to achieve their goals. The assassination of President John F. Kennedy burst the idealistic bubble of the economic boom and prosperity of the 1950s and 1960s. The 1970s were a witness to a declining trust in government as the Watergate crisis divided the nation. Impeachment hearings embarrassed the nation while continued crisis in the Middle East heightened tensions internationally. The ordeals and trauma of the Vietnam conflict haunted the country and led to a desire to get back to roots and to a time when society appeared to be closer knit, where values were more "pure." The mood was one of restlessness. Attempts were made to reunite the nation in a search for truth and justice. Albert Schweitzer's words, as quoted by Robert R. Leeper in his article, "To Spark A Change" (1974), were important in keeping perspective,

> However great the world's evil, I never allow myself to get lost in brooding over it. I always hold firmly to the belief that each of us can do a little to bring some portion of it to an end.

Disillusionment sparked a period of idealism which supported the "sexual revolution", the women's movement, and an interest in pursuing individuality (Anderson, 1970; Leeper, 1974; Morris et al., 1984).

The 1960s and 1970s ushered in a period of loose organization within the schools, open classrooms, and an emphasis on humanistic education. The motto was "the right to learn for all," a respect for open discussion of ideas and feelings, an atmosphere of warmth, freedom and support, respect for the democratic process, and experiential learning (Goodlad, 1971; Leeper, 1974).

John Goodlad, in a paper prepared for the White House Conference on Children, wrote that the American society was guilty of molding children in images created from the adult world. He wrote that, "We see the man we want the child to become rather than the child seeking to become himself" (1971: 3). He noted that schools lacked an understanding of diversity and that schools of the twenty-first century would struggle to assert truly human values to place man in a healthy relationship with his natural environment. He described the future of education as an enabling process rather than an instructional one, one which would open the world to the learner giving him easy access to that world. There would be tremendous respect for the child's capacity to learn which would lead to an ultimate freedom (1971: 3). Goodlad wrote that the way to achieve such goals would require a reconstruction of existing schools, and a creation

of new schools free of the present system. He urged an expansion of "formal school" into the real world and stressed that the formal school was only a part of the learning environment (1971: 3).

Within this climate the Principal of an elementary school found himself in a setting that had a population of students and teachers increasing more rapidly than ever before, and an increasing offering of programs such as required physical education, health education, lunch and breakfast programs, and playgrounds. The individual school had become a more independent unit as geographically there was greater distance between the Superintendent's office and the Principal's office. In addition, the Principal was removed more psychologically from the central office as communication and visits became less frequent. The Principal became an entity "out there by him/herself"; he/she was making more decisions. Even though there were more central and state regulations, the actual day to day planning and decision making was becoming the domain of the building Principal (Otto, 1961). The management years of the Principalship were transforming, if ever so slowly, into the leadership years. The societal changes, the open classrooms, the humanistic approach to education required decision making at a local level. In 1958, 59% of Principals responding to a survey by the Elementary Principal's Association believed they were accepted as leaders in their local school systems. This leadership

thrust brought increasing self-respect to Principals, increasing professionalization of the position, both important to the thrust of the 1980s when the Principal became chief change agent and architect of the "Effective Schools" movement (Otto, 1961; Morris et al., 1984).

5.2 Climate

The Principal,

> ...should be concerned with the organization of a school only as it facilitates the emotional and intellectual experiences that the child has within the setting of the school...Organization is the servant of function (Anderson, 1970: 6).

The 1960s and 1970s saw a "knowledge" explosion and the espousal of individuality, humanistic education, and democratic education. The Principal became the gatekeeper of the educational institution. As such, the Principal was the key player in establishing the climate of the school. Chris Argyris defined organizational climate as a

> ...living complexity composed of three related systems of variables: formal organizational procedures, personal needs, complicated patterns of variables associated with the individual's efforts to accommodate his own needs with those of the organization (Goldman, 1966: 60).

School climate commonly includes school culture in its broad definition. Broken into smaller units, climate consists of the design of the environment both physically and interrelationally. It is the presence of collegiality, communication, trust, and the support for risk taking and creativity. The climate is the professional environment and the human environment. It is how people feel about their

school. The school culture is made up of the linkages which inter-weave collectively accepted meanings, beliefs, values, and assumptions that members use to guide their regular, daily actions (Sarason, 1971; Johnston, 1987; Wilson & Firestone, 1987; Patterson, Purkey, & Parker, 1986; Sweeney, 1988).

The Elementary School Principal of the 1960s to the present has been an establisher of both culture and climate. The Principal, given the more independent nature of individual buildings in relation to the central office, is the individual who established with his/her staff, what the school communicated to the public and to those within the building. The former gatekeeper model of managerial tasks and order was replaced during the 1960s with an adminis-trator who developed procedures with staff to establish a philosophy for student learning and achievement. Given this goal, school systems began to look for Principals who were skilled in conflict management, setting direction, and balancing competing interests within the building (Morris et al., 1984; Greenfield, 1987; Ubben & Hughes, 1987). This increased the professionalism of the Principalship as everything that went on in and around the school became the responsibility of the Principal.

5.2.1 Vision

The Principal has been, more than ever, asked to be the leader of the school. He/She is charged with creating the overall climate, encompassing culture, and defining a mental

blueprint for action. This blueprint for action is defined as vision. The Principal is the individual who initiates and guides his staff toward setting a purpose and direction. The 1960s and 1970s were decades of great change in education. The old notion of the self-contained classroom was giving way to the open concept of education in a room with no walls where each child was encouraged to move along as ready. The former "busy" seat work gave way to activity centered, experiential opportunities. The teacher was no longer the center of the classroom. The students were encouraged to develop at their own pace, achieving goals and objectives. Multi-age grouping was back in style (Anderson, 1970). In order to preserve order among staff, who were not necessarily trained for these new techniques of teaching, it became the responsibility of the Principal to support and guide the teachers. No longer could central office direct such a building-based issue. The Principal guided his/her staff toward the establishment of goals or objectives for individual or group action. This initiative, "...defines not what we are but rather what we seek to be or do" (Greenfield, 1987: 18). Establishing a vision continues to be important in the early 1990s as change continues to dramatize the need for an orderly procedure. Principals, during the 1960s, were beginning to realize that the modern Principalship required them to envision better schools, to articulate this vision, and to orchestrate consensus. Never before had the Principalship demanded this type of skill.

Those Principals comfortable with the earlier management styles found the going complicated and unchartered (Achilles, 1987).

"Administrators are like tonsils- really unnecessary, but capable when irritated or inflamed of infecting the whole system" (Barnes, 1970: 38). During the 1970s, educators questioned the values previously held in high regard in education. Should teachers have desks? Should children be required to take certain subjects? Shall all work be acceptable and judged creative? There was even talk of the necessity of having a Principal. However, in a survey of teachers reported by Melvin W. Barnes in his National Elementary Principal Journal article, "The Administrator's Role in Humanizing The School" (February, 1970: 38), he found that,

> To an overwhelming majority of working teachers, the school Principal was the single most important person. More than anyone else, teachers seemed to feel the Principal created the climate in which they taught; he set the limits, handed out rewards and punishments, and, most importantly, constructed the invisible value and power structures of the school.

The Principal gave the teachers security to do their best (Dunworth, 1962).

5.2.2 Humanism

The concept of humanistic education evolved during the decade of the 1970s. It was tied to the notion of developing the potential of all to the fullest measure. Humanistic education involved both staff and students. The

beliefs were that each individual was capable of solving his/her own problems, that each possessed the freedom of creative choice and action, and that each was a master of his/her own destiny. One could achieve the "good life" by harmoniously combining personal satisfactions and continuing self-development with significant work and other activities. Each individual worked toward the welfare of him/herself and others (Abrell, 1974). The role of the Principal was to create an environment of progressive education which would encourage human growth and fulfillment among those with whom the Principal cooperatively worked. The Principal, as the building supervisor, in fostering humanism within the elementary school, would help others to:

1) assess and diagnose needs;
2) plan goals;
3) establish a climate to maximize strengths;
4) choose strategies which would produce intended outcomes; and
5) appraise and evaluate results of their efforts.

(Abrell, 1974: 214)

Humanistic education required the Principal to question his/her own beliefs and assumptions and those of others. While doing so, he/she needed to make staff feel worthwhile and to encourage his/her staff to do like-wise for their students. The school environment had to reflect self-worth in programs, policies, and discipline. The humanistic Principal needed to cultivate and establish a warm,

empathetic relationship with students, staff, and community. This required skill in listening to others to determine what would help smooth the way in working toward their potential. The goal of supervision, provided by the Principal, was to contribute to human growth and progress; a commitment on everyone's part to upgrade him/herself. The climate of the school, set by the Principal, reflected a compassionate concern for fellow workers (Barnes, 1970; Wayson, 1971; Abrell, 1974: 215).

5.2.3 Democratic Education

The desire for humanism in education sparked a continued need for democratization. What began after World War II as an effort to instill patriotism and an appreciation of the strength of democracy over communism, became the forerunner to the 1980s and 1990s push for teacher empowerment. The democratic concept in education was to instill in students and staff an independence in learning. Staff meetings, and ultimately classroom meetings were to encourage questioning. The Principal's role in democratic education placed him/her in a position of no longer being the sole authority in decision making. He/she played a key role in deciding how and when to use the democratic concept. This key role, however, was intended to develop teamwork and high morale. The Principal was responsible for raising the motivation of his/her colleagues, improving the quality of decision making, and developing a flexible organization that could accept rather

than resist change. The Principal needed to be clear about his/her assignment and responsibilities. He/she needed to redefine personal authority whenever it would improve the work of the school. The Principal needed to be comfortable asking for input, and to know when to make decisions on his/her own. He/she derived power not just from the legal delegation that signified the Principalship but from those with whom he/she worked. The Principal no longer could be simply a doer of chores, a manager, and a keeper of the peace. The Principal became a working member of a team. Group centered leadership was key to the democratic concept in education. Guidelines were hazy, however, it called upon the Principal's risk taking and judgement in interpersonal relationships as no prior concept had (Schmidt, 1962; Morris, et al., 1984; Greenfield, 1987). An example of guidelines for effective democratic leadership was written by Warren Schmidt, a consultant at the University of California, in 1962. The Principal:

1) is flexible- choosing from a range of leadership behaviors.

2) is aware of forces in himself, in the group, and in the situation- he lets the group know the degree of involvement in decision making that they have.

3) keeps in mind the immediate problem and the long-range effectiveness of the group.

4) makes sure necessary decisions are made by the group when feasible, by himself when necessary.

(38)

Schmidt outlined five ways to use leadership:

1) The Principal decides an issue and then tells the group.

2) The Principal decides an issue and sells the group.

3) The Principal makes a tentative decision and tests it.

4) The Principal consults the group.

5) The Principal joins the group in decision making.

(1971: 37)

> The real leadership power of the Principal resides in his professional competence and in the personal influence he develops through informal interaction (Miller, 1962: 16).

In order to understand the concepts of democratic leadership, the Principal needed to continue his/her professional study. Reading current journals was important. Good staff interaction was essential.

> The typical elementary school is like a loose federation of so many little kingdoms. The real power lies with the individual classroom teachers. The Principal is a sort of local U.N. secretary, trouble-shooting and coordinating for the sake of orderly control (Miller, 1962: 16).

For the first time since the establishment of the Principalship, the Principal was being called upon to not only become a risk taker but to guide others in risk taking. The Principal was now held accountable for humanizing and democratizing education. He/she was looked upon as a key to progressive education and instead of being led by the central office, his/her new motto was, "Never ask permission." Decision making was decentralized with the

thrust for such responsibility being pushed back to the individual building (Wayson, 1971).

5.3 Leadership

Leadership is an elusive term. No one style works for all teachers, students, or parents. It was clear that by the 1960s principals were called upon to balance administrative duties with leadership capabilities.

> Leadership is a constant search for the unique conditions under which each person best works, learns, grows, and for the mean within one's limits and the limits of the school system to provide those conditions (Barth, 1980: 185).

In order to establish a leadership style in the context of a particular school, it is essential to check a Principal's perceptions against those of others within the building and within the community. Leadership is best defined, according to Barth (1980: 184), by those the leader attempts to lead, not by the leader. Leadership is in the eyes of the led. Leadership requires an expertise on the Principal's part for learning which problem needs attention and which may be let go. It is learning to put "administrivia" at arms length in order to deal with important student or staff issues. Leadership involves reducing fear so that those in the school may grow (Barth, 1980).

Barth describes leadership as being able to use different means of responding to different people. It is risk taking while checking the odds for success. It is supporting people, being accessible, individualizing

contacts, being firm and clear in expressing expectations (1980: 193).

The definitions of leadership during the 1960s, 1970s, and 1980s differ slightly in verbiage and emphasis, however, there is agreement upon the leader's need for vision, courage, and "maturity of courage" to inspire teachers rather than to manage them (Barton, 1960; Goldman, 1966; Barth, 1980; Sergiovanni, 1987).

Virginia Grace Barton, a Superintendent in the 1960s, authored an article in the National Elementary School Principals Journal. She writes that,

> The Elementary School Principal is modern education incarnate and an institution unto himself. As he performs his endless array of duties, he strives to inspire, to stimulate, to train, and to mold the minds of children, teachers, and other citizens. Of necessity, he must be an educated person, aware of his cultural heritage, of the humanities, and of the place of science in today's world (11).

She prescribed a tall order for an individual who only recently had emerged from a position of manager of a building. Barton described the Principal as one who, "Back at his desk, ...realizes that his duties as a director of learning consist of the leading of people and the management of things" (1960: 10).

Many educators describe the guidelines of good leadership. Sergiovanni (1987) outlined five leadership behaviors: technical, human, educational, symbolic, and cultural. The technical aspect refers to the management, planning, and organization of a building. The human forces

refer to human relation skills, motivational techniques, good morale building, and participatory management leading to a healthy school climate. Educational forces refer to the conceptual knowledge of the practitioner in performance of the daily operations of the building; examples include diagnosing educational challenges, supervision, curriculum development, and staff development. The symbolic forces are behaviors that symbolize what the leader believes important to the organization. Cultural forces are what the leader determines to be most valued in the way of school traditions (22, 23).

Peterson (1987: 143) identified six sets of behaviors guiding leadership. He looked more specifically at the interrelational aspects of leadership. His guidelines were geared to the facilitation of achievement-related behaviors in schools. They were:

1) regularly observing teachers and providing feedback;

2) monitoring student progress by reviewing test results with teachers;

3) working with teachers to build a coordinated instructional program;

4) promoting staff development by securing resources and finding opportunities for growth;

5) communicating with teachers their responsibility for student achievement; and

6) acting as an information and instructional resource with individuals singly or at staff meetings.

Such behaviors, suggested Peterson, fostered strong curriculum programs, possessed goals, identified and strengthened values, reinforced norms related to improving teaching and learning, and suggested strong internal motivation (Peterson, 1987: 144).

A good leader must possess the ability and vision to identify and enable his/her staff to identify goals. Group objectives, the achievement of some specific group goal or the maintenance of the group itself, was a necessary skill for the successful Principal (Lipham, 1962). "The excellence of a school lies in how its internal processes work to constantly improve its performance" (Ubben & Hughes, 1987).

The 1980s defined a goal for the newly defined leadership status of the Elementary School Principal. That goal was communicated in the "Effective Schools" movement. The concept behind the movement, popularized by Ronald Edmonds, Wilbur Brookover, Lawrence Lezotte, and Michael Rutter, became a current topic after the publication of the Carnegie Report (1986) and A Nation At Risk (1983). The "Effective Schools" movement represented a composite of ideas on school effectiveness. It was a search for better methods of teaching and for running the school institution. The concept stressed the necessity for strong leadership capabilities on the part of the Principal (Achilles, 1987; Stedman, 1987; Edmonds, 1979). Leadership was viewed as a vehicle to improve a school's performance. Major themes for

school improvement included the strengthening of teacher skills, the systematizing of the curriculum, the improvement of organized structures, the involvement of the community in partnership with the school. The key to having an effective school was identified to be the leadership role of the Principal. "The excellence of a school lies in how its internal processes work to constantly improve its performance" (Ubben & Hughes, 1987: 17). Although there is some controversy concerning the actual causal relationship between Principal leadership and school outcomes (Hallinger & Murphy, 1987), the concept has been cited in numerous literary articles and has been identified by federal commissions. The perception of Principal leadership as one of the most important factors in school improvement continues to be espoused.

5.3.1 Leadership in Curriculum

The needs of the decades 1960-1980 focused on curriculum innovation. This need directed itself, in the 1960s, to the competition between the Soviet Union and the United States. The need for curriculum innovation continued as world-wide competition escalated, urban renewal failed and the plight of the minority child did not improve. Competition with Japan in the 1980s continued to spark the need for more than a band-aid approach toward curriculum innovation. The Principal was identified as the instructional leader (Morris, et al., 1984) who was responsible for the development and overseeing of techniques

in order to "deliver" the curriculum to students. He/she was the chief overseer of the entire curriculum program (Sergiovanni, 1987; Ubben & Hughes, 1987). The Principal took on ever increasing responsibilities for the "instructional technology" of his/her school. The technology aspect refers to the strategies employed to teach concepts. Two aspects of the technology that the Principal needed to attend to were the clarity and the complexity. The clarity of the technology referred to the extent to which the instructional process was understood. The complexity referred to the degree to which the instructional processes of the school required interdependence and coordination among the teaching staff. The Principal had to consider the breadth of the learning goals within the school, the beliefs and practices of the staff in respect to teaching processes, and the diversity of instructional methods used by the teachers (Hallinger & Murphy, 1987).

The most important task defined for Principals during the 1980s was overseeing the quality of instruction in the school. This could be accomplished not only by staff meetings for cooperative goal setting, but by the actual supervision and evaluation of the teachers by the Principal. This responsibility heightened the need for Principals to get out of the office and assume the leadership role that could only occur in the classroom setting. Interest in the leadership role persists into the beginning of the 1990 decade. Communicating the importance of curriculum highly

influences the atmosphere of ideas, values, and standards of behavior (Morris et al., 1984).

5.3.2 Change Agent

The decades 1960-1990 catapulted, at least in the literature and in theory, if not in the majority of Principal's lives, the leadership aspect of the Principalship. The 1960s and 1970s emergence of leadership literature and of need for curriculum change fostered the beginnings of the concept of Principal as chief change agent. A definition, in the literature, describing the nature of leadership by a change agent is capsulized by the Encyclopedia of Education. Leadership is an act that initiates a new structure in interaction with others. Leadership behavior focuses on initiating change in goals, objectives, configurations, and procedures. An effective leader is one whose actions have initiated change judged as beneficial (The Encyclopedia of Education, Volume 1, 1971: 77). The Principal has been identified as the single individual in a building who has the opportunity to view the entire building and to formulate a vision for the entirety. In A Nation At Risk (1983), it was clearly stated that Principals must play a crucial leadership role in the development of school and community support for reform (32). The 1980s witnessed an emphasis on the change agent portion of the Principal's responsibility. Such a responsibility required an individual who was committed to risk-taking and who had a vision; that individual had to be able to

communicate that vision, to shape and elevate motives and goals of his followers (Peters & Austin, 1985; Burns, 1979; McDonnell, 1985; Fullan, 1985; Harrison, 1987).

> Building Principals are key figures in the innovation process. Where they are both aware of and sympathetic to an innovation, it tends to prosper. Where they are ignorant of its existence, or apathetic if not hostile, it tends to remain outside the bloodstream of the school... (Tye, 1970: 42).

Ubben and Hughes reported a study conducted by Keith Goldhammer and Gerald L. Becker titled, "What makes a good Elementary Principal?" In an investigation of over 300 elementary schools the results concurred with the literature describing a dynamic Principal at the helm of a school classified as educationally sound. Goldhammer and Becker reported,

> In schools that were extremely good we inevitably found an aggressive, professionally alert, dynamic Principal determined to provide the kind of educational program he deemed necessary, no matter what. Schools deemed weak had a weak Principal- morale of the teachers and students was low and fear was the basic control mechanism (Ubben & Hughes, 1987: 5).

Ubben and Hughes further reported on Stanley Peter Freund Associates, Innovation and Change in Public School Systems (1970) study. This study looked at innovations. They found that one condition which correlated with innovation was the kind of leadership that existed at the school building level. Their conclusions were that an innovative school system must have Principals who were in tune with the district's objectives and who were skilled at

involving and motivating their teachers. Innovative Principals identified their roles in terms of educational leadership and in terms of creating an environment for learning (Ubben & Hughes, 1987: 5).

5.4 Administrative/Management Functions

Despite the thrust of the leadership role for the Principalship during the 1960s-early 1990s, the responsibility of management still remained a key task. A manager is responsible for the flow of work and people in the work area. Schedules, assignments, communication, and supervision are all pieces of the whole. The Principal is the key site manager who continued and still continues to have clerical duties in addition to leadership responsibilities. The thrust toward the leadership and change agent role did not supercede the management role although controversy still exists concerning the balance of both within one job description. The Principal's management duties include:

1) monitoring finances and facilities
2) developing and overseeing the school's communication system of bulletins, meetings, etc.
3) recruiting, selecting, and assigning staff
4) overseeing ancillary school services
5) scheduling and grouping
6) organizing student activities
7) overseeing discipline

(Morris, et al., 1984: 16).

In 1966, Samuel Goldman outlined the responsibilities of the Principalship as developed by the Southern States Cooperative Program in Educational Administration (1955). The responsibilities were divided into critical task areas

and the scope of responsibilities were vast. The critical task areas included:

1) Instruction and Curriculum Development
2) Pupil Personnel
3) Community School Leadership
4) Staff Personnel
5) School Plant
6) School Transportation
7) Organization and Structure
8) School Finance and Business Management

(Goldman, 1966: 29-31).

Each critical task area was explicitly defined. An additional outline of a Principal's duties was provided by Barth (1980: 250). "The extent to which the school Principal has responsibility for carrying out these tasks is dependent upon the expectations held for him by his superior" (Goldman, 1966: 31). The Principal was constrained by multiple controls. Even though the 1980s called for innovation and risk taking, the other side of the coin was the reality of the Superintendent's office. While there existed, during these recent decades, more autonomy to select the means to achieve ends, in the choice of tasks and in the selection of key personnel, there was still an expectation and a mandate by the Superintendent on the Principal to accomplish the administrative tasks as well. "The work of Principals takes place within the organizational boundaries of school districts" (Peterson, 1987). Each school district had a variety of interactional processes, structural elements, and organizational systems which shaped, constrained, and supported activities of Principals (Barth, 1980; Peterson, 1987).

The major shift in the 1960s in regard to management was a move away from "What does the school administrator do?" and toward "What is his role in the total educational enterprise?" The role of Principal carried with it certain expectations for behavior and for performance. Many of these were set by reference groups who were direct recipients of the Principal's services, such as teachers, parents, students, colleagues, and central office staff (Goldman, 1966).

Encompassing the variety of specific functions within the critical task areas outlined previously were two major dimensions of the Principalship. One was the effective management of the enterprise (materials, personnel, etc.), the other was the leadership aspect which depicted the way Principals "use themselves" to create a school climate characterized by staff productivity, student productivity, and creative thought. The work of an administrator is to cause an organization to function efficiently and effectively (Ubben & Hughes, 1987). The able administrator must combine the leadership and the management aspects prescribed by the position.

5.4.1 The Day to Day Functions of the Principalship

The goal of the day to day functions of the Principalship revolved around the prime force behind the executive act, to get done those things which help to achieve the goals of the organization. If properly run, a well managed school is able to carry on day to day

activities without the constant involvement of the Principal. Ubben and Hughes stated that the primary responsibility of the Principal is not the routine operation of the building but the creation of organizational conditions whereby school operations may be modified, whereby flexibility exists and the flow of the operation continues (1987). Staff are aware of standards set by the Principal, but have a variety of means available to them.

What, then, does the Elementary School Principal do on a daily basis concerning the management of the building? The Principal is in constant interplay with his constituencies, students, teachers, parents, community members, staff, and central office. The job could be classified as an "oral" occupation; it is a job of talking (Morris, et al., 1984). Typically, an Elementary School Principal's day begins between 7:30 and 8:00 A.M. and concludes anywhere between 4:00 and 5:00 P.M. Eighty-three percent of the day is spent interacting with people according to an ethnographic study recorded by Morris, Crowson, Porter-Gehrie, and Hurwitz, Jr. (1984). Nineteen percent of that communication is with people outside the school building. In most schools the office is divided into an outer office for secretaries and an inner office for the Principal. The study found that the Elementary School Principal spent less than half of the working day in his office. Little communication went on among system

Principals outside of meetings. Most such communication was for the purpose of exchanging information.

A scenario of a Principal's existence, caught among constituencies, hectic, and interactive, has been described in a humorous context by Fullan (1982: 130).

> Mother calling upstairs in the morning:
> Mother: It's time to get up for school.
> Chris: I'm not going to school!
> Mother: Why not?
> Chris: Because everybody at the school hates me - the teachers, the kids, the janitor - they all hate me!
> Mother: You have to go. You're the Principal.

Roland Barth (1980, p. 182-184), in his book, Run School Run, cited the outline of his typical day as observed by a Harvard graduate student. The day began at 7:40 A.M. and concluded at 4:45 P.M. Most of the day was spent communicating with others, addressing various challenges, some planned, others spur of the moment. A summary of the day can be found in Appendix A.

The daily job of a Principal is often one caught between constituencies - staff, students, community, central office. While the goal of the Principalship during 1960-1991 has been to guide the school toward a new vision, the very nature of the daily routine may obscure that vision. Within an elementary school the Principal is often the lone administrator carrying on the functions of both manager and leader. The daily work is characterized by brief, unplanned verbal interactions (Manasse, 1985; Roberts, 1987). Manasse's report (1985) on the Morris,

Crowson, Hurwitz, and Porter-Gehrie study of the Principal's work day (1981) described it as a series of brief, unplanned verbal interactions. The study revealed that 80% of that day was involved in face-to-face verbal interactions with staff, community members, central office personnel, and pupils. Eight percent of the Principal's day was spent on the telephone, and 12% of the day was spent at a desk. Fifty to 100 separate events and 400 interactions comprised the typical day. In addition to the high number of face-to-face encounters, the Principal faced a variety of tasks with an extensive network of individuals and groups. This resulted in a hectic, unpredictable flow of work which produced many unimportant decisions and trivial agendas. Reaction tended to be more prevalent than proaction, action was evident over reflection, few opportunities existed for sharing with colleagues, and feedback from supervisors was often rare and abstract (Manasse, 1985; Roberts, 1987; Schon, 1987; 1983). This job description of a fragmented, generally unplanned agenda, structured by numerous, brief encounters seems to run counter to the notion of an effective administrator.

A recent attempt to conceptualize the current role of the Elementary School Principal was undertaken by this researcher in March, 1991. Based on the Zero-Based Job Analysis Questionnaire published in Instructional Leadership, How Principals Make A Difference (Smith & Andrews, 1989: 135-144), this researcher developed a

questionnaire, The Elementary School Principalship Job Analysis (Appendix B). The survey questionnaire was sent to 93 Massachusetts Elementary School Principals at random. Fifty-three survey questionnaires were returned. Of the 53 surveys returned, 37 were from male Principals and 16 were from female Principals. Among the 37 male Principal surveys, nine had less than five years experience in the position, six had between six and 15 years of experience, 13 had between 16 and 25 years of experience, and nine had between 26 and 34 years of experience. The surveys returned by women Principals revealed that seven had less than five years of experience, six had between six and 12 years of experience, and of the remaining three, one had 16 years of experience, one had 23 years of experience, and one had 26 years of experience.

Ages of the Principals varied. The youngest male was 33 and the oldest was 60. Two were in their thirties, 15 were in their forties, 15 were in their fifties, three were age 60, and two were missing that information. The age category for women revealed that the youngest was 36, and the oldest was 59. Two women did not reveal their ages. Three women were between the ages of 36 and 39, seven women were between the ages of 43 and 49, and four women were between the ages of 51 and 59.

Relating age to experience, the two men in their thirties had served in the position for one and two years, men in their forties had served in the position between one

and ten years with two exceptions, a 15-year veteran and a 20-year veteran. In the 50-year range all Principals had served in the profession for over 20 years with the exception of two, one who had served for 16 years and one who had served for 19 years. Of the three 60-year-old Principals, two had served for 31 years and one had served for 25 years. Two Principals had not included this information in their returned survey. Relating age to experience for the women revealed that the three women in their thirties had served for less than ten years. The women in their forties ranged in experience from one year to 16 years. The four women in their fifties ranged in experience as follows, two years, seven years, seven years, and 23 years. Two women, one with 26 years experience, and one with two years experience did not record their ages. Although this survey sample is small and limited to the state of Massachusetts, it is interesting to compare findings with a larger, more national survey addressing the issue of male/female ratio in the Principalship and the age/experience ratio of male and female Principals. Statistics regarding male/female ratio of beginning Principals have been reported by The National Association of Elementary School Principals (NAESP). A questionnaire was sent to a national sample of new Principals who had joined NAESP. One hundred and thirty-five returns accounted for 18% of those sent who had joined NAESP and who had begun in 1987-1988. The responses revealed that a typical beginning

Elementary School Principal was a 42-year-old caucasian male, 48% of the returns were from females. No typical beginning age was reported for women (Holcomb, 1990).

Of the 53 surveys returned to this researcher, 12 Principals reported having an Assistant Principal. Four Principals reported having an Assistant Principal part time. That part time status ranged from one day a week, to one hour a day, to after school (due to a full time teaching load for the Assistant Principal). Thirty-five Principals reported having no Assistant Principal. The individuals to whom they delegated tasks ranged from teachers, secretaries, parents, central administrators, social workers, aides, counselors, nurses, students, custodians, to, as one Principal wrote, "anyone in the building." Two surveys were returned without information regarding an Assistant Principal. A further statistical break-out of the survey appears in Appendix C.

Based upon information received from the survey, in the area of building management, 57% conduct supervision of job performance for custodial, secretarial, and other support staff. Forty-one percent monitored the maintenance of the building, while 55% shared this responsibility with staff, a colleague or central office. Fifty-five percent of the respondents handled requests for information, paperwork, and annual reports from central office. Seventy-two percent were solely in charge of the building budget. Thirty-four percent solely handled the development of office routine,

45% shared that responsibility. The ordering of materials was evenly divided between Principals alone and those who shared responsibility with another. Responsibilities for the educational program were handled mainly by the Principal, or as a shared responsibility with staff. The majority of responding Principals handled the selection and evaluation of personnel for their buildings. Most Principals shared the task of community relations. Sixty-seven percent of the Principals were responsible for communicating with the parent advisory group. Principals shared, delegated, and handled themselves the many responsibilities concerning direct student intervention. Most Principals were responsible for district, federal, and state reports. The results of the survey/questionnaire confirmed the Principal's involvement in most aspects of school life. Many Principals appeared to be the sole administrators in a building seeking individuals to whom to delegate tasks. The challenge appears to be how to juggle these numerous responsibilities while continuing to create and act upon an agenda for change and leadership possibilities.

5.4.2 Conclusions

Leadership and supervision have been emphasized as Principal responsibilities since the beginning of the 1960s The modern Principalship of the 1990s represents a myriad of complex roles with little time for the key leadership functions. Morris, et al. suggested that while the

Principal may be an innovative individual, he/she is also expected to maintain good management strategies which avoid conflict and engender an ordered school environment. The authors questioned the twin demands of instructional leadership and managerial control. The challenge seems to be the balance between change and stability, how to be innovative while keeping the building running smoothly (1984).

> ...Although the Principal is barraged with admonitions to be an educational leader, his energy is usually dissipated by ordering, scheduling, reporting, etc. Time to improve instructional programs is lacking (Hunter, 1971: 37).

The role of the modern Principal is best described as "practicing a craft." Many Principals describe their work in metaphorical terms- firefighter, detective, super-teacher, quarterback, Red Cross worker, psychiatrist, paper chaser, etc. Observing a Principal in action reveals an image of an individual who spends his day in a highly fragmented manner, moving from one problematic situation to another, having a minimum of time to devote to these situations and even less time to reflect on them. Therefore, school leadership may not be about any one single thing, but about a number of things, some closely related, others not (Blumberg, 1987: 42). The modern day Principal is in charge of the "everythings" that occur at the building level. These "everythings" are aimed at,

1) keeping things going as peacefully as possible.
2) dealing with conflict or avoiding it.
3) healing wounds.

4) supervising the work of others.
5) developing the organization.
6) implementing educational ideas.
(Blumberg, 1987: 43).

Blumberg (1987) wrote that no science of administration is suggested in the job of the Principalship, that it is, in fact, a craft which can be communicated to others. The work of a craftsperson includes:

1) knowing what the final product should look like.

2) understanding the nature and idiosyncrasies of the materials to be used to instruct students.

The modern day Principalship has, indeed, evolved from School Master to Head Teacher, from Teaching Principal to Building Principal to Supervising Principal, from manager to instructional leader. As Blumberg suggested, perhaps the Principalship is now more craft than science.

C H A P T E R 6

THE PRINCIPALSHIP: PERSPECTIVES FOR THE FUTURE

6.1 Introduction

We must be the change
We wish to see in the world.
Ghandi

Bernice McCarthy, during her speech at the National Association of Elementary Schools Principals National Fellows Program in Nashville, Tennessee, described the leadership style of a successful Principal as follows: "Trust People, give them all the learning, then get out of the way" (1990). This philosophy charges a Principal with a far more complex role than previously held. Leadership is more than heading an institution. It is more than being the authority turning the action at a school. It bespeaks a style of leadership which places trust in those who teach, which provides for the needs of those who deliver the instruction to students, and which provides the vision, guidance, direction, and opportunity for growth for all within the institution. McCarthy described a leader for the 1990s and the twenty-first century as one who is self-directed, able to empower others, a learner him/herself, a risk taker, and a vision maker (1990). The future of public education is tied in closely with the future of the Principalship. Reforms will require energy, commitment, and economic resources. Failure of reforms is akin to failure to change. The typical knee-jerk reaction descriptive of

the Principalship negates the time necessary for self-reflection and assessment needed to get to the deeper levels of thinking and goal setting (Deal, 1990; McCarthy, 1990). The skill to make change might well be the Principal's best asset as the decade of the 1990s heads toward the twenty-first century. Effecting change is complex, far more so than issuing mandates. Change must focus on people first, then on organizational structure and policies. Understanding staff dynamics, school culture and climate, and being able to motivate others will be essential (Buffie, 1989; Deal, 1990).

The complexities of the modern Principalship, fueled by the expectations of a society which places responsibility on public servants, requires and will continue to require a powerful preparation package provided by universities, practical training, and support groups. Public education cannot afford Principals who are unable to envisage a more encompassing leadership role. Preparation must afford the Principal skills, conceptualization of vision, creativity, and critical thinking tools in order to fulfill the mandates of reform. The skillful Principal will be able to motivate others more by desire than by decree.

Approximately 65% of present Principals will be retired by the year 2000 (Holcomb, 1990: 1; Principals For The 21st Century, 1990: viii). This provides a marvelous opportunity to upgrade preparation for the position. It also provides an opportunity to reach out to groups of people hitherto

unable to access a leadership position. Demographics show that the typical Principal is a 42-year-old caucasian male (Holcomb, 1990: 1). Attracting females and minority groups into administration will require planning, extensive search efforts, and university programs which actively seek excellent candidates from wider reaching circles.

Along with an aging Principal population comes an aging teaching staff. Dealing with staff members at various stages in life requires sensitivities and leadership skills to utilize each staff member to his/her fullest potential. Age, family obligations, the increasing pressures of a changing world come to school with both staff and students (Flavell, 1970).

Students during the 1990s and the twenty-first century will be coming to school in need of more than simply an education. Children of poverty will increase in number and, as the stress of daily life continues to escalate, the needs of other children as well will continue to grow for educators. As society demands more and more, it is giving less and less.

Compounding a difficult scenario for the future of the Principalship will be the variety of school system standards across the United States. Each school system represents an autonomous unit with a Superintendent, school committee, and various state mandates. This is especially true for the New England states which continue to pride themselves with small autonomous school systems linked to the state only by state

laws. Each system functions by its own supervisory body, the school committee, which hires a Superintendent to handle educational matters. Superintendents hire Principals to handle individual building matters. School systems typically choose their own texts, write their own curricula, set up their own codes of behavior, and set their own contractual agreements. Monetary provisions to carry out the educational mandates are supplied largely by property taxes, making each system different from another according to the wealth of its citizenry. This situation makes equal opportunity of public education for all seem very unequal to say the least. This also provides each Principal position with a different set of conditions. The literature discusses leadership opportunities; however, these opportunities present themselves only at the whim of the Superintendent and school committee. Fiscal concerns determine the dollar amounts available to implement some programs. These conditions are external to the quality of the individual in the position of Principal.

The future of the Principalship is tied up with the future of public education. According to many current authors, such as Fullan (1982, 1985), Guskey (1986), Hallinger and Murphy (1987), the present reform measures will only succeed if change is allowed to happen and if it is nurtured. The optimistic scenario for the future holds countless opportunities for principals to display leadership skills to insure the success of students and the integrity

of the teaching profession. The pessimistic view of the future holds "sameness," the continuation of foot dragging of school systems being behind rather than in front of the needs of society. This view relegates the Principalship to the doldrums of building management and the duties of keeping the system running up to status quo.

Presently there appears to be a wide gap between the "is" and the "ought" of the Principalship. The literature calls for a dynamic educational leader while, in many cases, the reality suggests a middle manager holding onto the status quo. The challenge of bridging the gap between "is" and "ought" will determine the future of the Principalship. Lack of attention to these challenges might leave principals in the following position,

> We aren't doing what we should be doing. We never seem to have enough time...when I started as a Principal, the Assistant Superintendent advised me, "Harold, 75% of your time should be spent in evaluation, instruction, and curriculum." I couldn't even do it then. Today, it's reversed. I don't spend 25% of my time with the people who are handling the instructional program (McCurdy, 1989: 13-14).

6.2 The Role of the Principal, External Factors

Many factors exist outside of the individual Principal's control. Some of those factors include existing staff, student population, parent population, central administration, school committee members, and fiscal opportunities. The Principal must work within these constraints and challenge areas. Many times he/she is not in a position to control or change factors, but must

creatively envisage modes of operation conducive to quality education. Other major constraints are time, lack of administrative staff, lack of time to be visible to teachers and students, coping with emergency and crisis management, disciplinary issues, immediate and ongoing needs of various populations of people, and a barrage of paper work. The daily menu of the Principalship allows for few blocks of time available to any single activity. The usual course is to complete tasks immediately which negates the act of putting a principal's knowledge into practice (McCurdy, 1989: 15).

6.2.1 Culture, Climate, and Symbolism

Life in a school is determined by ideas and values. As time passes these ideas and values take on the shape of rituals, things which are done out of habit, without conscious thought. Rituals become comfortable. Any change represents a disruption to the rituals. The entrance of a new Principal may cause discomfort even before the Principal, him/herself, makes his/her personality known. A Principal is often made head of a school with a very ingrained culture and climate already present. He/she is expected to work with individuals he/she did not hire and who may not share his/her vision. Many established faculties greet any change with distrust and resistance. Perceived change may collide with traditions and produce conflict. A Principal entering such a setting would do well to bear this in mind and take precautions against any major

change until he/she has had an opportunity to consider the culture already present. He/She must learn about the culture, the linkages which interweave collectively accepted meanings, beliefs, values, and assumptions that members use to guide their regular, daily actions (Sarason, 1971; Johnston, 1987; Wilson & Firestone, 1987; Patterson, Purkey, & Parker, 1986).

While a new Principal enters into a school whose culture is pre-established, an existing Principal is bound up in an existing culture. Both must harness culture to effectively implement change. Understanding this point helps a Principal to focus on content and upon communicating that content to staff in ways that the culture permits. School improvement has been directed at the things produced-discipline, achievement, staff development. Effective schools literature addresses these subjects; however, ignoring culture ignores the very thing that produces the effects. Culture impacts the individual's ability and that of the group to learn and to transmit knowledge to students. Culture is a controller of behavior and while it is linked to tradition, it may be changed by members. Principals, engaging in change and in administering a building, will be able to utilize the culture within a school to guide them in the selection of change methods if they learn to study the culture and think of it in positive terms to overcome challenges. Knowledge of the values in school leads to knowledge of basic beliefs that control the choices that are

made by members of the group (Johnston, 1987; Sarason, 1971; Wilson & Firestone, 1987; Peters & Austin, 1985).

School climate is created by the design of the environment both physically and inter-relationally. Climate is the feeling within the school walls. It is the presence of collegiality, communication, trust, support for risk taking and creativity. Alternatively, the climate can reflect the rigidity of teaching and the authoritarian nature of leadership. The climate is the professional environment and the human environment. It is how people feel about their school. The American Association of School Administrators (AASA) lists ten essentials in creating a "winning school climate." They are:

1. A supportive, stimulating environment
2. A student-centered environment
3. Positive expectations
4. Feedback
5. Rewards
6. A sense of family
7. Closeness to parents and community
8. Communication
9. Achievement
10. Trust

(Sweeney, 1988: 1)

Climate directly affects culture. As the environment within an organization changes, the traditions of the school are affected. A school culture which is supportive of collegiality and creativity in group decision making, is ultimately affected by a new Principal who commands the school in a rigid and authoritarian manner. A cold climate emanating from such rigidity will impact traditional behaviors which may no longer be accepted by the leadership.

As support is withdrawn, the culture will gradually shift gears; new traditions will be formed, many staff members will leave, and the climate and culture of the new Principal will begin its own traditions. Thus, the Principal may create the environment by the acts he/she commits and the choices he/she makes. Creating a climate of openness and trust allows for change to occur positively (Shallcross, 1981; Downey, 1971; Fullan, 1985; Sweeney, 1988). Included in a list of characteristics of a healthy school environment are: strong creative leadership, order, discipline, collaborative work and planning, clear goals and high expectations for learning, staff development, and a planned, coordinated curriculum (Patterson, Purkey, & Parker, 1986: 100). Principals who are preparing to enter a building will be better prepared if the climate and culture are regarded as important pieces of the job at hand.

The symbolic side of a school is tied up in its culture and climate. Belief and faith are anchored in symbols and ceremony. The school represents the feelings and thoughts of how things ought to be done. The effects of values determine what will be attended to most diligently, who is most respected, what people will work on, and what expectations are placed on building professionals. Culture and climate can be woven together by an instructional leader to bring new meaning to endeavors. He/she can offer stability, certainty, and predictability to assure that change will not produce the things people fear - ambiguity

of direction and goals, and lack of control. The Principal is in a position to shape values and to establish the means to accomplish goals. Understanding the present culture, the Principal is in a position to use his/her knowledge to shape ceremony and to communicate culture. Culture is communicated by formal and informal systems to spread information about what is happening in the building. Principals collect stories of school happenings and become story tellers of the culture. Principals intent on innovation may tell stories about past and present school innovators. The Principal uses cultural linkages to ensure that the vision for the school is carried out. At the same time, the Principal must personify the values that the school wants to have shared. A vision of goals stems from the values of the school (Sarason, 1971; Manasse, 1985; Wilson & Firestone, 1987; Dwyer & Smith, 1987; Deal, 1987).

As a symbolic leader, the Principal builds the culture of the school, shaping and articulating shared values, and spirit. The Principal who understands the culture, climate, and symbolic meaning within a school captures the emotions of the school, and bonds the people within the building together (Deal, 1987; Deal, 1990). Terrence Deal, in his speech to Principals during the National Fellows Conference for Principals in Nashville, Tennessee (1990), said that the most important factor in effective leadership for the 1990s would be "symbolic." He referred to the symbolic lens as an important predictor of effective leadership in celebrating

the rituals and values of the work place. He suggested beginning the school year in September by having staff sit in a configuration by years employed at the school. Each member is asked to tell a story about the school, some remembered event, some endearing memory, some history, etc. This researcher utilized this activity in September 1990 as she entered a building for the first time as its Principal, following a long term by her male predecessor. That September, there were eight new staff. This activity gave experienced members of the school a chance to share special moments while it gave new personnel an opportunity to understand the current culture, climate, and symbolism

Terrence Deal wrote that,

> We have tried almost everything conceivable to improve our public schools. We have invested millions of dollars in staff development - only to watch new skills disappear amidst old routines.... More promising approaches, reflecting the symbolic side of schools, may be found by reviving the wisdom of the past or, a more formidable task, by transforming the basic character of schools (Educational Leadership, 1990: 6).

6.2.2 Staff

Terrence Deal (1987: 231) wrote that strong instructional leaders observe teachers more often, talk with them more about instruction, and are more supportive of their work. Deal wrote that this menu for effective leadership might well be what this researcher calls the "ought" of the Principalship rather than the "is." Deal asked, "Is this activity of being visible to teachers a myth or reality? He

found that most Principals spend their time on a wide variety of brief encounters not often connected. Many of these encounters are initiated by others. Deal further described an effective school as one in which individual needs are acknowledged and met, there is a well-coordinated system of roles and relationships to support the goals of the school, there is a commonly accepted pact among subgroups to support the goals of the school, and there is a set of shared symbols and ceremonies which lead to a collective identity (Deal, 1987: 238). Deal identified the Principal as an instructional leader and a counselor, parent, engineer, supervisor, referee, hero, and poet. As a counselor and parent, the Principal meets the individual needs of his/her staff by providing praise, feedback, help, and nurturing. The Principal is a listener, and an advisor. As an engineer or supervisor, the Principal sees to it that building goals are clearly defined and understood. He/she, further, clarifies roles of personnel.

Planning, developing clear policies and procedures, coordinating roles, resolving conflicts, are all imperative in fulfilling school goals. School-wide goals lead to operational objectives for all, not just the Principal. With these in place more adequate observing and evaluating may occur (Deal, 1987: 239).

Deal described the Principal as a statesperson, given that the school is a collection of special interest groups. The effective Principal needs to mold special interests into

a school-wide coalition. Inviting and confronting conflict creates a setting that brings contenders into contact with one another governed by rules. The hope is that different interest groups will find common ground allowing them to coexist with a more productive agenda.

The Principal is a symbolic leader who builds the culture of the school, shaping it and articulating shared values. The Principal needs to become the creative visionary (Deal, 1987: 240). It is clear that the Principal will not be able to improve instruction without considering the complex nature of the school. Principals need and will continue to need a more comprehensive view of the "...phenomenon they wish to affect" (Deal, 1987: 243).

Looking forward, Principals must examine their own images of schools as organizations. Only armed with this information will they be truly prepared to tackle this place called school. Staff members need this type of leadership as reform measures continue to be mandated and expectations of schools continue to escalate (Deal, 1987).

Principals, now and in the future, more than ever before, have to consider staff needs for participation in decision making. It is conceivable that the Principal will become more the monitor and facilitator of decision making rather than being the sole decision maker. As a facilitator, the Principal provides the settings wherein teachers may be productively involved in the decision making process (Tye, 1970). In order to fully utilize one's staff,

researchers such as Tye (1970) and Deal (1987) suggest that a Principal will need to fully understand the makeup of the collective faculty. Within a teaching staff, there will be experienced teachers, novice teachers, and those in the middle. In addition, Judy Arin-Krupp's (1986) research on adult development, in the context of a school staff, points out how imperative it is for Principals to understand the life stages of adult development so that they may utilize staff members most efficiently.

A Principal enters a building already staffed. As years go by, he/she will have the opportunity to hire individuals he/she believes will carry out the goals of the school in the manner that he/she envisions. However, waiting for this opportunity may take years. Given the length of time teachers are staying on the job and given the lack of opportunity to transfer to other districts, staff are aging and have been in a single school for more years. A Principal who is intent upon introducing change or affecting any aspect of school life will do well to assess the experiential level of his/her staff. Staff members directly impact the achievement of students and the transfer of curriculum to them. There is a direct relationship between the things teachers do and the things students learn (Gage, 1984). Several researchers have determined that there are definite developmental stages within teaching based upon the number of years of teacher service. Within these stages exist clear behaviors and goals attributable to

experience. It is further suggested that levels of motivation, the origins of human action, and the willingness of individuals to participate in meaningful movement towards goals, is related to stages of teaching (Mitchell, 1987; Allain, Wylie, & Steele, 1984; Stallings, 1987; Krupp, 1981).

Douglass E. Mitchell, in his study of the incentive system in elementary schools (1987), observed 15 teachers for one year. He found that incentives provided by the Principal shaped an orientation toward school goals that aided the implementation of innovation. Sharing a common culture provided a source of identity with the school as a working group. As he observed these teachers, Mitchell noted stages of experience. He identified Master Teachers, Instructors, Coaches, and Helpers. Each stage had its own needs and strengths which figured prominently when implementing change. Master Teachers were those who had been teaching for a number of years and had been recognized by their Principals as effective classroom teachers. They were strong contributors to school endeavors. Instructors were most confident in developing and executing classroom lessons. They saw this as their most important role and rarely ventured beyond the classroom boundaries in contributing to school-wide change efforts. Coaches were strong as nurturers within their classrooms and put the nurturance of their students before academic achievement. The Helpers viewed the school as an organization with

predetermined curricula and program structures. They placed their efforts in helping students deal with the demands of schooling. They did not see a personal responsibility for helping students perform to a higher level. Mitchell labelled the Helpers as the weak links in a school. He advised that these teachers feel no personal involvement in the creation of any school programs developed by others. Mitchell's findings suggest that teachers teach based upon their beliefs about the fundamental purposes of education. A Principal involved in the change process needs to assess where his/her teachers are in their definitions for education. A Principal must bring the thinking of teachers into line with his/her own views of an appropriate mix of achievement and nurturance goals (Mitchell, 1987).

The successful Principal needs to avail him/herself of the opportunity to be sensitive to various developmental stages of his/her teaching staff. Developmental stages are cited in a study by Fuller (1969); they included a pre-teaching phase of non-concern, a middle phase of concern with self and survival, and a later phase of concern with impact on students. These stages were later refined by Fuller and Brown (1975) to include: 1) the survival stage with concerns about class control, and being liked by students and supervisors; 2) the mastery stage with concerns about mastering teaching tasks; 3) the impact stage with concerns regarding recognition of students' social and emotional needs, and tailoring content to meet those needs.

Research by Newman (1980) is described by Allain, Wylie, and Steele (1984) concerning developmental stages within the framework of teaching. Newman observed four major transitions in a teaching career: The first year, the tenth year, the twentieth year, and retirement. These transitions were related by Newman to the personal development process. Allain, Wylie, and Steele took Newman's transitions and added their own research to describe the stages of teaching. First year teachers are mainly concerned with self-uncertainty stemming from the unknown, worry about classroom control, confusion, insecurity, the desire to do a good job, and the need to be liked by their students. Experienced teachers show a lessening of concern with self and more of a concern regarding students and others within the school. By the time teachers have taught for five years or more they have determined what works best for them and for their students. The image of teacher has moved from what one should be to what one is. Newman cited the tenth year as a transition period where many teachers decide whether to remain in teaching. Teachers approaching 30 years of service begin to grapple with the notion of retirement.

Armed with these developmental stage theories, Principals should be able to look at their staff make-up when contemplating change. Strategies selected for change making or innovation should compliment the teacher types and stages of development (Mitchell, 1987). Principals must

focus on individual staff needs as well as whole school needs. Novice teachers need clear, direct input from principals while professional teachers prefer collaborative approaches. Experienced staff want a facilitator, not a director (Stallings, 1987).

Some of the most extensive research on adult development related to schools has been undertaken by Judy-Arin Krupp (1981). She has also highlighted transition periods for teachers and stable periods. Transition periods are marked by an individual's questioning of his/her future in teaching, reappraisal, and exploration. Teachers in stable periods feel a sense of order, comfort with choices, and satisfaction. In addition to teacher developmental stages, adults are now acknowledged to go through developmental stages once believed to be solely in the province of children. Reaching adulthood is a childhood goal and developmental stage theories have been reserved for children in their preparation for adulthood. There has been an effort to outline adult stages of development to describe a set of shared experiences. Age alone is not a factor (Flavell, 1970; Neugarten, 1973; Frenkel-Brunswick, 1973; Kuhlen, 1973, 1964; Krupp, 1981, 1986). Krupp (1986) has taken these adult developmental stage theories and translated them into career related tasks. She asserted that knowledge of this important information would give Principals a tool for success in determining who within a building would be best for various tasks.

Stage one (ages 17-24) is the time for the establishment of independence, the formation of identity, the creation of a dream, and the search for a mentor. The task is to commit with an open mind, to be flexible.

Stage two (ages 23-28) is the time to establish an identity, intimacy, and stability. The task is to bring to realization the identity established earlier. Career and family begin to take shape. It is a gathering time- spouse, material items, job. This would be the life stage in which many principals would find their novice teachers. These teachers are defining their teaching identity and Principals provide them the opportunity for flexibility. The novice still adapts to new procedures and is open to trying new techniques. This would be a fertile time to encourage creativity in a teacher. Peer support is also a very important aspect of teaching. A Principal helps the novice to set realistic goals.

Stage three (ages 28-35) finds an individual asking about self and discovering how that self penetrates the world. Individuation, the search for identity, becomes clearer. The sense of responsibility sets in. In teaching, the individual is still open to trying new ideas if there is a relationship to some aspect of self. Time becomes a factor in that responsibilities at home take away from job time. Spontaneity gives way, in some respects, to a need to plan.

Stage four (ages 33-40) defines the key issues as stability, advancement, de-illusionment, and a sense of accomplishment in the area of a dream. De-illusionment, as defined by Judy Arin-Krupp (1986), is the ability to be satisfied with what is and the ability to ponder ways to improve the present while letting go of what is no longer attainable. Progress requires a willingness to change. While change is desired, stability is also wanted as idealism gives way to realism. This stage may be painful if success toward a dream is not realized. At this point, one can modify the dream, forget the dream, or take a risk to fulfill it. Professionally, this time period translates into a dream commitment and a family commitment that takes away from the desire for after school commitments. Time is precious for the attainment of goals. Principals might provide situations that permit a teacher to act as an authority in some situations. The Principal's knowledge that there exists a career/family duality is essential to implementing change or making any major decision.

Stage five (ages 40-47) is considered a transition stage. The key concerns are generativity, career, individuation, and marriage. Individuation continues, but by age 45 the reworking of former dreams includes new realities. The goal during this life stage is, according to Krupp, to be a de-illusioned adult, one who is satisfied with what is, one who ponders ways to improve upon the present, but one who does not dwell on what is no longer

attainable. The task is to integrate the best of youth and the best of old into one's life. Many teachers, at this stage, stay in teaching out of necessity. They often complain and are critical of new ideas and methods. Principals ought to be aware that these teachers feel the need to have a principal as a facilitator and not as an educator or guide. It might do well for the Principal to leave these teachers alone to foster goals and values when they are in line with the school's direction.

Stage six (ages 45-50) is a time for a sense of permanency. Change must be in keeping with self-perception. Change is not as easy as it once was. The mellowness and comfort of this stage are not encouraging for change.

Stage seven (ages 50-60) is the onset, for many individuals, of physical change. The present is prime time and further rigidity may set in. Approval is no longer centered on occupation as one reviews one's life. Ages 60 to retirement make up stage eight. Here, the key concerns are integrity, disengagement, and physical change. The focus is on self.

It will become more and more essential, as the population ages, to acknowledge that the human organism is at different levels of activation at different times (Kagan & Moss, 1962). Understanding key periods in the lifetime and career of individuals will help the Principal to know to encourage the novice to ask meaningful questions and to set attainable goals, while encouraging the experienced staff

members to move beyond the concerns of the singular classroom to larger issues (Waters & Wyatt, 1985).

6.2.3 Central Office

While the Principalship has become the focus of strategies for change, innovation, and reform, the role of the central office cannot be ignored. It is the Superintendent, directly, and the school committee members, indirectly, who deter or enable the Principal to fulfill his/her leadership potential. Superintendents and boards of education exert a major influence on Principals by policies they make, priorities they set, and by the subtle and open communication they utilize. While recent literature on effective schools and from the Carnegie Report suggest that the Principal should focus on leadership skills, the Superintendent or school committee may support that or deter the Principal if leadership is not the direction or priority. In many instances, the Superintendent has not focused on the training and up-grading of Principal skills when considering the improvement of a school system. Teachers are usually the focus for training before the Principals (McCurdy, 1989).

According to a survey conducted at the 1982 convention of the American Association of School Administrators, McCurdy found that the majority of Principals responding to the question, "What one thing could superintendents do to help principals perform more effectively?", answered that better communication between Superintendents and Principals

would be most helpful. The second most frequently mentioned response described a need for Superintendents to provide more support for Principals' efforts and for "building based" management.

Principals desire more authority in the realm of "building based" decision making. They require the support of Superintendents to take risks and to have the freedom to try out new ideas. Principals want a closer relationship with Superintendents and wish for jointly established goals (McCurdy, 1989). The survey results, "What's Most Helpful to Principals" (see Appendix D), taken from The Role of the Principal in Effective Schools published by the American Association of School Administrators (McCurdy, 1989: 61) suggest that Principals are interested in the opportunities to go to conferences, to update skills and to become more involved with the Superintendent in decision making and goal setting.

It seems clear from the research that the effectiveness or ineffectiveness of Principals is ultimately tied to contextual factors which may lie beyond the Principal's control. The individuals in the central office, be they finance managers, Assistant Superintendents, Superintendents, or members of the school committee, have the final power to allow leadership skills of the Principal to emerge. A Principal needs to carefully research the system in which he/she chooses to work (Dwyer & Smith, 1987; Miles & Lewis, 1990).

6.2.4 The Community

Schools do not exist in a vacuum. A school is part of a community. In school systems with more than one elementary school, the portion of town where a Principal's students live becomes the school community within the larger community. A close working relationship between school and its community is a major component of an effective school (Webster, 1989). A new Principal begins his/her job in an already established community. It is vital that he/she learns who the children are, what types of family structures are dominant, what cultural diversity exists, and what expectations are held. Although the community is a given for the Principal, he/she may work to project an image that forms the dominant perception of the school by parents and the community. Proficient Principals learn to comprehend the facts about a community and learn to work with that community. Proficient Principals learn to draw upon the resources of the community, helping to make each community member feel a part of the school. Education belongs to all in the community, not just to those with school children. Drawing from the early years of this country's colonization, creating an opportunity for education was an important responsibility for all (Webster, 1989).

Principals need to be available to parents and community members. Giving parents and community members information about their school creates allies and strong supporters. Informed individuals do not fear the unknown.

The Principal has to be a public relations expert, profiling teachers, actively promoting school pride, publicizing the academic, creative, and athletic achievements of students, teachers, and the school. In a general sense, he/she must rally parents and community to the school's support (Heller & Lundquist, 1990: 42).

6.3 Internal Factors

While the Principal comes to his/her school with many factors already in place, his/her personality and style of leadership will impact success or failure. The competent Principal will have a clear understanding of the purpose for his/her school and will be able to manage the organization toward fulfilling that purpose. The able Principal will be an individual who is able to help teachers focus their energies. The Principal must be an individual in whom others believe and whose style of leadership compliments the fulfillment of goals. Finally, the successful Principal must have "management of self," "I know who I am; I know my strengths and weaknesses. I play to my strengths and shore up my weaknesses" (Smith & Andrews, 1989: 5).

6.3.1 Factors Influencing Instructional Leadership Styles

Many definitions of leadership have been formulated, in fact Bennis and Nanus suggest that there are 350 definitions of leadership recorded in the literature (1985). Inclusive in these definitions are those which suggest that strong leaders are able to involve everyone in pursuing a shared mission. James MacGregor Burns defines leadership as

exercised when persons with certain motives and purposes mobilize resources so as to arouse and satisfy the motives of followers (Smith & Andrews, 1989). Sergiovanni (1990) and Smith and Andrews (1989) cite Schmuck's 1985 definition based upon MacGregor Burns' work as "inducing followers to act toward goals that represent the values of both the leaders and the followers." The literature suggests that there are certain behaviors seemingly associated with strong Principals. Those behaviors include: a strong commitment to academic goals, an ability to create a climate of high expectations, a strong instructional leader, a forceful and dynamic leader, an ability to consult with colleagues effectively, an ability to create order and discipline, to utilize resources, to use time well, and to evaluate results (Smith & Andrews, 1989). Smith and Andrews concluded that such a list of characteristics requires a Principal to be an individual of high energy and assertiveness, able to assume the initiative, open to ideas, able to tolerate ambiguity, and equipped with a sense of humor, analytic ability, and a practical stance on life (1989).

The achievement of excellence may be attained by various leadership styles. These methods include empowerment, staff development, coaching, and mutual decision making. Leadership styles are determined by the personality of the Principal in conjunction with the personality of the staff.

6.3.2 Empowerment

Douglas E. Mitchell cites the most important ingredient for school improvement as the enhanced work incentive. He claims that leadership rests on a willingness and ability to understand the motivations of those who are expected to follow. Linking motivations and aspirations of organizational members to overall goals and basic operational norms of the organization is key. He defined motivation as the origin of human action, the willingness of people to participate in meaningful actions and to direct their efforts toward fulfilling particular goals and purposes (1987: 206).

One model of leadership which has been touted in recent literature is empowerment. The Principal of tomorrow will need to be cognizant of the fact that power is a key to action. The owner of that key is a link to change. Within a school, power is the ability to mobilize energy to get things done. Mobilizing this energy may be the most important activity a building leader carries out. Mobilization may require the sharing of power with others. An organizational strategy for sharing power is empowerment. The verb to empower is used to describe the act of a leader bringing others into a state of capability to act. An empowered person is someone who believes in his/her ability to act; this belief is accompanied by able action. Belief is the source of power, it is strengthening and serves to solidify group cohesiveness and communication. Empowerment

is a philosophy of leadership. It is not a step by step process which has a step by step procedure. It is a conscious, committed, and pervasive style of leadership. Empowerment is a willingness on the part of a leader to share and nurture power with others. It is a "pull-style" of influence (Bennis & Nanus, 1985: 82) which attracts and energizes followers to a vision of the future (Ashcroft, 1987; Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Patterson, Purkey, & Parker, 1986).

The concept of empowerment emerged in the United States during the 1970s in response to social and economic power struggles. It began as a politically inspired word but has moved into other realms of life (Cochran, 1987). It was used in the Carnegie Report on Education (A Nation Prepared: Teachers for the 21st Century, 1986) to suggest a look to the future which fosters critical inquiry and creative thinking. Empowerment suggests a working together for a common purpose with the impetus for power being a shared responsibility (Ashcroft, 1987).

Within an elementary school, the Principal is responsible for the vision and future of implementations. He/she is responsible for aiding staff in identifying appropriate behaviors which support the needs and goals of the school. The course of actions suggested by the empowerment philosophy require a Principal to become aware of the "frames" or modes of thinking and of the alternative methods for action. He/she is required to take note of the

values and norms to which he/she has given priority (Schon, 1983). Empowering others is a risky business. It involves others in the ownership of an innovation. The risk taking factor of empowerment requires creative leadership by the Principal. It suggests that the Principal has a true belief in the potential energy and capability of teachers. Rather than being the directive leader, the Principal by empowering others, chooses to be the spark, the igniter; the Principal enables change to occur from within the ranks. Empowerment supports competence as it encourages learning on the job accompanied by a sense of self-mastery. Empowerment supports cohesiveness as it joins staff together for a common purpose (Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Ashcroft, 1987; Schon, 1983).

Empowerment is a philosophy of education which shares the power for action among individuals. It is a philosophy by which the creative Principal may provide others with the impetus to take responsibility for the well-being of the school. It is a model of leadership which will bring out the best talents in others. A principal who is comfortable in allowing others to lead will be able to realize bringing to life some of the reform measures touted for the future.

6.3.3 Staff Development

Principals who are thinking futuristically will need to make better use of staff meetings and staff development. Both are essential ingredients of change as they address the quality of learning experiences on the part of those who

work in a school. Staff development, which may encompass staff meetings, addresses individual needs as well as school goals. Once again, as with empowerment, this style of leadership supposes that a principal is able to allow involvement by those who work in his/her building. Communication becomes more open, thus chances are increased that problems may be formulated, scrutinized, and resolved in more wide-ranging ways. Defined, staff development is the provision of activities designed to advance staff knowledge, skills, and understanding in ways that lead to creative changes in their thinking and actions. This differs from the notion of in-service education which is usually a one-time, short-term model for sharing information (Krupp, 1981; Fullan, 1982; Sarason, 1971; Fenstermacher & Berliner, 1985; McDonnell, 1985).

Effective and creative instructional leaders use school-based staff development programs to encourage teacher discussions about quality teaching practices, to involve teachers in developing and evaluating staff objectives, and to advocate change throughout the school. Raising staff awareness through discussion and communication, elevating awareness by allowing teachers to examine issues, meeting the needs of staff by cooperatively designing an action plan with an evaluation component, and monitoring the progress of communication are ways that enable teachers to learn to make sound decisions about curriculum and teaching techniques

(Berliner, 1984; Doggett, 1987). Such staff development helps to produce better teachers which in turn produces positive changes in student learning outcomes (Guskey, 1986). Guskey's diagram (see Figure 1) affords a visual opportunity to understand this model.

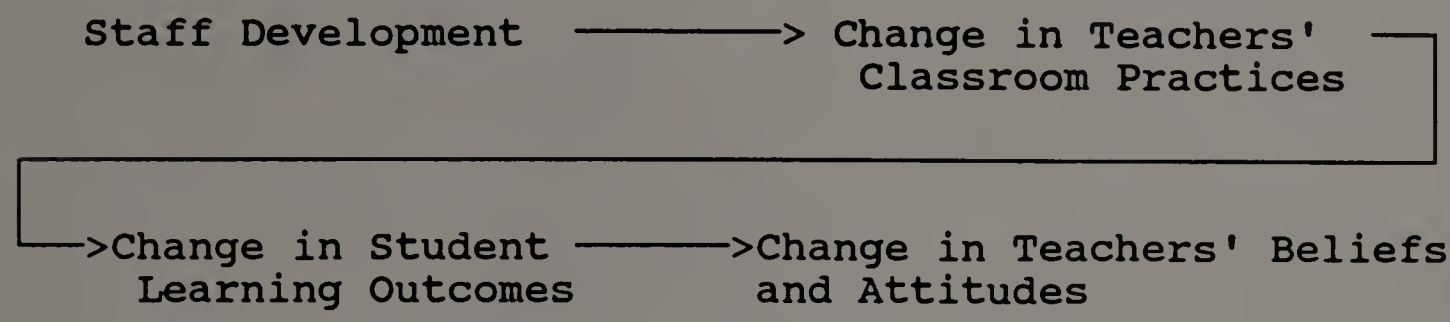

Figure 1. Ordering Sequence of Events Needed in Training of Experienced Teachers

Staff development is required for innovation in order to implement new practices. It requires a collaboration between staff and Principal. The creative Elementary Principal uses staff development to encourage staff members to reach for self-actualization goals. Creative leadership offers others the opportunity for training that will further open them up to new experiences, enable them to enjoy experimentation in a safe environment, present a risk taking challenge, and present a goal orientation.

Staff meetings, so often utilized to present "housekeeping" information by the Principal to the staff may, in the hands of a creative Principal, provide an appropriate forum to discuss problems, boost morale, and improve the school program. What makes the difference

between a stimulating staff meeting and a waste of one's time is the Principal. It is the Principal who determines the agenda, sets the tone, and provides the forum. The successful Principal will begin a meeting by asking him/herself some questions: 1) If this meeting is successful, how will we know it?; 2) What time will this meeting end?; 3) What is the purpose of this meeting? Time is and will continue to be an issue in the school day. Making better use of teacher time boosts productivity (National Association for Secondary School Principals [NASSP], 1982).

6.3.4 Coaching

Peer coaching provides for collegial interaction that is important to the enhancement of school effectiveness. Principals who employ this method must feel comfortable allowing teachers the time necessary for coaching and must support collaborative planning (Joyce & Showers, 1983). Coaching pairs teachers with teachers to work on specific teaching methods or to refine teaching practices. A Principal utilizing this leadership style will need to be able to select the most appropriate coaching model for his/her staff. Once again, the goal of leaders in the future will continue to be that of focusing on helping others to take responsibility for sharing in team problem solving; this is opposed to the usual isolation experienced today by both teachers and Principals (Garmston, 1987; Joyce & Showers, 1983).

6.3.5 Summation

Leadership by a building Principal is about coping with challenges and change. Change is happening more and more swiftly as we head toward the twenty-first century. International competition, changing demographics of students and families, and more frequent life crises make "staying the way we always were" a fantasy. The successful Principal who is able to face the future is one who is able to provide the leadership necessary to cope with such change. The Principal must begin by setting a direction, developing a vision of the future, offering strategies for producing the changes needed to achieve that vision (Kotter, 1990). A Principal must choose a strategy that fits his/her personality as well as the personality of the school personnel. The strategies for the future involve staff in sharing responsibility for actions and decision making. Having the courage to share such "power" is a risky business but a necessary one for a successful future.

6.4 Preparation for the Principalship

In their book, Instructional leadership: How Principals Make a Difference (1989), Wilma F. Smith and Richard L. Andrews researched the effectiveness of Principals based upon teachers' judgments. A definition of instructional leadership was constructed from current literature and the authors conducted behavioral analyses on what Principals do. The results showed that strategic areas for Principal/ teacher interaction identified the Principal as: 1) resource

provider- gathering personal, building, district, and community resources to achieve the vision and goals of the school, 2) instructional resource- engaging in the improvement of classroom technology which enhances learning, 3) communicator- articulating a vision heading everyone in the same direction, 4) visible presence- providing access and visibility so that the Principal is felt throughout the school as the keeper of the vision (p. 9-18).

These job dimensions require skill and expertise from the individual in the role of Principal. Therefore, it is imperative that the preparation for such a position become one that is postured to prepare individuals to assume a leadership position. Should this not happen, literature might continue stressing what ought to be while the reality of the position might continue to function at a managerial level stressing what was and is. Frequently, throughout the evolution of the Principalship, literature and reality have differed.

The role of the Principal has been defined as a leadership position for the future. Leadership is "...a conscious effort to improve the quality of teaching, instruction, and the school- with student achievement as the number one objective" (McCurdy, 1989: 9). This leadership role comprises school management, instructional leadership, and supervision. The Principal's day may be described as a "tumble of events" that converge on the Principal throughout the day. The question for the future and the key to future

success of the Principalship will be the ability to train new leaders who are able to manage the complexities of the position. No longer will it be sufficient for the training of perspective Principals to be solely building managers. Future Principals must be managers of people as well as of physical plants. They must be able to focus on cooperation with teachers, parents, and students. The Principals of the future must be enablers who encourage ideas, experimentation, collegiality; rather than the main attraction, the new Principal is the "guide on the side not the sage on the stage." The future Principal must be prepared to share power over the curriculum and school (Lewis, 1991).

In reviewing the certification requirements for principals in the state of Massachusetts, the following are recently (early 1980s) established requirements taken from the certification pamphlet: School Principal (1991) (N-6) (5-9) (9-12).

(a) Requirements

1. possession of a Massachusetts classroom teaching certificate
2. three years of employment in a role in which the candidate holds a teacher's certificate
3. completion of a pre-practicum consisting of 24 semester hours of courses and other experiences on the graduate level...
4. completion of a half practicum (150 clock hours) within one year, or an internship (300 clock hours) within two years, judged successful on the basis of the standards

(b) Standard I. The effective Principal knows:

1. theories of curriculum design and evaluation
2. theories and techniques of supervision and evaluation of personnel
3. school law, budgeting, plant management

4. human relations and community education
5. sociology and philosophy of education
6. organizational characteristics of schools and strategies for institutional change...

(Massachusetts Department of Education, 1991)

Prior to these recent requirements, all one needed to become a principal were: 1) at least three years of successful teaching and 2) one three credit course in administration.

Universities will be able to play an important role in the education of aspiring Principals. It will be important for university staff to examine the current literature and the current call for "building based" management in order to design and refine effective programs. These programs will need to prepare leaders who are skilled in management of both people and buildings.

Regarding university programs, the following courses are required at three major Boston schools of higher learning for aspiring Principals. The three institutions are Boston University, The University of Massachusetts at Boston, and Wheelock College. Although this is a very small sampling of American universities offering degrees in education, the programs provide an insight into present thinking:

Wheelock College. Program of Study in School Leadership- leading to a Master's degree and to certification for School Principal (N-6) or Supervisor/Director: 36 credits

Core: 6 credits required

Core I (required 3 credits)
Adult Development
Core II (required 3 credits)
Program Evaluation (field-based pre-practica)

Specialization: 24 credits required

Curriculum Development and Improvement I
Curriculum Development and Improvement II
(field-based pre-practica)

Practicum: Leadership in Elementary Education
(6 credits)
Leadership I (field-based pre-practica)
Leadership II
Interpersonal Skills of Leadership

(Select one of the following two)
Teacher Supervision and Evaluation
Clinical Supervision

Elective Courses: 6 credits required

Boston University. Administration, Training, and Policy Studies leading to an EdM, CAGS, or EdD. This course of study offers specialized study in Human Resource Education. Study is characterized by the view that organizations and institutions are interrelated and influenced by larger cultural, political, economic, and technological systems. Courses vary depending upon the degree sought. The EdM program includes as offerings:

Public Relations (not required for the Principalship)
Citizen Participation
Community Education: PPA
Performance Appraisal and Supervision
Educational Politics: Local and State
Educational Politics: National
School Labor Relations and Personnel Management
Fiscal Planning, Budgeting, and School Plant Management
Group Problem Solving
Organizational Analysis or Administrative Planning
Pre-practicum/Internship Seminar
Practicum/Internship Seminar

Practicum or Internship
Analysis of Curriculum

University of Massachusetts at Boston. Educational Administration: Central Theme: the nature of the human variable, and what such knowledge implies for those who aspire to leadership positions in educational organizations. Programs lead to MEd or CAGS degree and require 36 credits. Course offerings include:

Organizational Analysis
Organizational Change
Philosophic Foundations of Education
Education: Sociocultural Perspectives
Research Design
Personnel: Administration, Supervision, and Evaluation
Curriculum: Theories, Development and Evaluation
Curriculum: Status, Issues, and Trends
The Principalship
The Law of Public Education
Fiscal Management
Microcomputers for School Administrators
Facility Design and Fiscal Management
Educational Facilities: Design and Management
Contemporary Issues in Education
Behavior and Classroom Management
Leadership Development
Labor Relations and Collective Bargaining
Community Relations
Social Dynamics in Organizations
Politics and the Educative Process
Advanced Seminar in Administration
Advanced Seminar in Supervision
Urban Education Seminar
Effective Schooling
Research Project

While it certainly appears that the most recent requirements for the Principalship are more geared toward the theories emphasized in the literature, it will be of great interest to research the impact of this training against the performance of working Principals. Further

research would be beneficial to ascertain whether or not what is taught in the university setting matches the practical daily needs of the Principalship and supports the changes called for in the current literature.

Present Principalship preparation, described in the two universities and one college cited, includes a masters degree in educational administration. It would be of interest in a future study to compare and contrast the different university preparatory programs throughout the United States, while examining as well the different state certification requirements that may include written examinations, a masters degree, and internships.

Reviewing the university course curricula above it is curious to note that only The University of Massachusetts at Boston has a course titled "The Principalship." Each of the three universities has strength in its perspective on training. However, each program of study encompasses other leadership positions as well. This may not allow for a concentration on the specific leadership requirements of the Principalship with its many unique aspects that are unlike those of other leadership positions. While it may be true that institutions and organizations have many similarities, it is also true that the Principalship, according to research cited throughout this study, requires very specific capabilities: 1) to think and act in brief encounters during a typical day; 2) to have an agenda shape the day which is created by outside forces; and 3) to generate and implement

vision while lacking motivating powers such as influence over pay raises, promotions, etc. Many authors and educators have called for a complete overhaul of the training and certification requirements for the Principal-ship. While the university curricula outlined above encompass the need for courses in curriculum, fiscal knowledge, leadership, and even change, as in Boston University's curriculum, the presence of practicum opportunities is also an essential ingredient; only a look at the "on the job" requirements can ever enable a perspective Principal to see, in practice, the task to be tackled.

Clearly, there is a curriculum need for both adult development and child development courses. Wheelock College requires the former. That is a major step forward given the intense working relationship between Principal and teachers. Change has been researched to be more successful if the Principal is aware of the dynamics of adult behavior as documented by Judy Arin-Krupp (1981, 1986). Research by Newman (1980) reported and expanded upon by Allain, Wylie, and Steele (1984), Mitchell (1987), and Stallings (1987) supports the importance of acknowledging the stages of adult development in relating to staff and school issues. Even with such information at hand, the change process is not a smooth one or even a successful venture at all times.

The preparation for the Principalship might further be enhanced by a course of studies targeted toward the

candidate him/herself. Reflection, including self-reflection, as suggested by Donald Schon in The Reflective Practitioner (1983) and described by Smith and Andrews as "management of self" (1989: 5), provides an opportunity to view oneself against the backdrop of an educational institution. The ability to plan and organize the life of a school requires thought and practice. Reflecting on oneself as a leader, on one's style, one's strengths and weaknesses enhances the possibility of being a more self-assured Principal.

Most recently, the National Association of Elementary School Principals (NAESP) called for four prerequisites to success as a school leader: 1) Advanced skills in teaching and learning processes; 2) Understanding child growth and development and practical applications; 3) A liberal arts background; 4) A commitment to children's welfare and progress. All four are found in varying degrees in most graduate school programs, but possibly not at the intense level necessary (1991). NAESP feels strongly that along with such preparation, at least five years of successful teaching be required for certification. Aspiring and present Principals must keep up with current literature. A liberal arts background provides the foundation upon which the content of most school curricula rest (Proficiencies for Principals [NAESP], 1991; Lewis, 1991).

The most traditional model for preparing Principals is enrollment in credit courses offered by colleges and

universities. While these are valuable, and may be even more so when reassessed in the future, most are not actively participatory. The student is most usually a passive learner absorbing traditional management theories.

A second model for preparing Principals is labelled The Institute. This format is short term and topic specific. The most limiting feature of an institute is that it is short term. Many states have competency based training which provides attainment of specified skills. The limitations here are that such training attempts to foster "recipes for effectiveness" (If an administrator completes a series of learning tasks, he will be an effective school leader).

The Academy concept of preparation is a recent idea. A school district or state agency provides structured learning experiences which are on-going. Participation is more involved than in the passive notion of the university class. The academy concept involves a group of aspiring Principals. This group stays intact throughout the training period. The participants may study together over a period of two summers, for example or over whatever period of time is required. Opportunities for lectures, internships, shadowing, and individual support are provided. The Commonwealth of Massachusetts is the first of the 50 states to offer such a course of study to prospective Principals. This program is offered by the Massachusetts Elementary

School Principals Association (MESPA). Several school systems also offer such training to aspiring administrators.

Internship is beginning to make a comeback and support for networking among colleagues is increasing. Networking, the formal and informal association of individuals in different schools for the purpose of sharing concerns and practices on an on-going basis, is a most collegial and supportive forum (Daresh 1987). A recent networking program began at the Far West Laboratory in California. P.A.L., Peer Assisted Leadership, as it is titled, bases its format on observing and being observed by peers. Such peer observation is believed to enhance a Principal's ability to become more reflective about his/her practices. Several steps are involved beginning with the shadowing process. Shadowing is an observational strategy for collecting information about a peer. The next step involves reflective interviewing, a technique used to obtain information about a peer's observed behavior. It calls for suspending judgement of peers by allowing partners to determine their own strengths and weaknesses. The goal is to foster collegial coaching to better prepare each Principal for self-evaluation (Barnett, 1990).

Most importantly, after Principals are hired, there needs to be an understanding that time for future training or retraining and time to put training into action be a priority. School districts need to have on-going education for administrators as an expectation. Such an expectation

requires a school district to provide a financial commitment and to educate the public about the need to value Principal inservice. Such public support might be easier to garner if professional development were directly tied to district priorities. Principals must also begin to take a positive attitude toward educational research, and to become active participants in such research (Daresh, 1987; Lewis, 1991).

It is clear that Principal preparation is directly related to the ability to perform a role which has become increasingly complex over the years. Principals must be adept at leadership and management, must be effective communicators, effective organizers, active change agents, and must have excellent interpersonal skills. The Principal of the future must continue to have attained a high level of academic achievement, a high degree of motivation for public service, and a major commitment toward education. Although it is difficult to measure and categorize all the personal traits that go into the make-up of effective Principals, it is clear that the survival of the Principalship will be determined by the ability of future generations of Principals to be strong, effective leaders of leaders. The rigors of the job are overwhelming for one individual to accomplish on his/her own. Being able to motivate others to share in the task will be essential. Universities, school districts, and principal associations will all need to work together to provide quality preparation opportunities for Principals in order to insure that the leader, whom the

literature is calling "critical to school improvement," remains a high quality individual able to, "...orchestrate the activities of teachers so that good things do indeed happen in schools" (Proficiencies for Principals [NAESP], 1991; Lewis, 1991; Daresh, 1987; McCurdy, 1989; Smith & Andrews, 1989: viii).

6.5 The Role of Gender in the Principalship

> While many professional fields are showing increasing numbers of women in managerial and executive positions, the same cannot be said for public education. Women are not moving rapidly up the career ladders into administration of public schools.
>
> At the same time, research on the abilities and behaviors associated with school leadership has been unable to identify a distinct set of individual characteristics that predict leadership ability. One researcher who came to that conclusion, M. Donald Thomas, says, 'Today we must eliminate the myths about who can and who cannot be a leader (Whitaker & Lane, 1990: 8).

Even though women have made gains in the area of public school administration, Whitaker and Lane in their article "Is a Woman's Place in School Administration?" (1990), assert that gender, more than age, experience, background, or competence, determines the role an individual will hold in education. Women continue to hold the majority of teaching positions while men continue to hold the majority of administrative positions. However, in elementary education this state of affairs was not always so.

In 1928, women constituted 55% of all Elementary School Principals. By 1984-85, the proportion of Elementary School Principalships occupied by women had fallen to 16.9%

(Whitaker & Lane, 1990: 8). A national study conducted by Daphne Schuster and Tom H. Foote reported that, by 1990, 29% of Elementary School Principals were women. What accounts for this decrease are several suggested roadblocks to women in administration. During the nineteenth century, there was a call for more men to come into teaching to provide role models for boys. An increase in male teachers led to an increase in male administrators. As years went on, men were promoted leaving women in the classroom. The twentieth century continued the stereotype of women and men in the work world. Men were socialized to persevere and seek professional success. Women were taught to nurture and support others. Teachers have been nurturing and supportive, administrators have been expected to be assertive leaders. Therefore, school systems have been a mirror image to the myth of the home, men manage the schools while women nurture the learners (Whitaker & Lane, 1990: 9).

Other conflicts restricting women from administrative roles include the fact that educational administration might conflict with family responsibilities. Many women have less mobility than men. Until recently, administrative functions were characterized by financial, organizational, and mechanical issues. More recently, the Principalship is emphasizing collegiality which is more in keeping with the supportive, nurturing role created for women. As the expectations for the leadership role of the Principalship change, so, too, will the perception of opportunity for

women in administration. This does not mean that women could not master the former administrative model of finance, organization, etc., but it does leave open the opportunity for the impact of changing attitudes coupled with changing role expectations of the Principalship.

It is clear that attitudes need to change in this society before the presence of women in administration is considered routine. More research time needs to be devoted to the issue of gender in administrative hiring.

> Probably nowhere in America is there a larger block that gives more credence to the phrase, "old boys' club" than public school administrators. They are disproportionately men, white and older than their counterparts in other occupations (Schuster & Foote, 1990: 14).

6.6 What Principals Are Saying

This researcher, in order to ascertain better how Principals view their roles today and to speculate on the role of the Principal in the twenty-first century, conducted ten interviews of Massachusetts' Principals. Four men participated, three of the four men are over forty years of age and have been in this position for over ten years. One of the four is in his mid-thirties and is in his second year as a Principal. Six women participated, five of the six women are over 40 years of age and one is in her late thirties. Two of the women have over ten years of experience as Principals, two are in their second year as Principals, and two women are in their third year as Principals.

Fifteen questions were asked by the researcher of each participant. Responses were recorded. The information is reported as a summary of responses to each of the questions. The first question asked Principals how each would describe his/her leadership style. All reported to some degree that they were supportive of staff members and most believed themselves to lead in a participatory manner. Descriptive terms such as "enabler," one who sets a positive example for others, a "catalyst," a "bringer of harmony and unity," "democratic," "facilitator," "motivator," "consensus builder," "relationship oriented" were used. Only one Principal described herself as somewhat directive, while one other, who valued the participatory approach, at times thought it was necessary to mandate an action, encouraging others to take up the mandate. He made it clear that he, as Principal, needed to set the high standards he expected from his staff. One Principal acknowledged the need to implement what the Superintendent expected and how the Superintendent wanted it done. However, this Principal spoke about the need to develop one's own style in order to bring out the best in staff potential. Both male and female Principals espoused a leadership style which suggested staff input and participation.

The second question asked was, "What has changed about your style since you became a Principal?" Two major responses were revealed. The first was that each person's style remained constant. Each Principal had nurtured

his/her style. Terms such as "growing in confidence," "making decisions more effectively," and "handling the role of Principal more calmly and in a more relaxed manner" were used. The second response dealt with style itself. The common thread was that these Principals felt that they had become better team players, and less like typical bosses. The responses suggested that these Principals were trusting their staff members more and were, in fact, becoming more comfortable as facilitators. One woman Principal of 17 years commented that she had grown in awareness of the politics of the Principalship. She was even more aware of the extent of male dominance within the profession and within administration in general. Two women commented on their growing assertiveness and ability to be more shrewd in the political game playing. This awareness was directed toward administrative levels. Trust was growing toward staff members. One male Principal had grown to regard the power and control aspects of the job less and to elevate the opportunity to encourage rather than mandate more, supporting teachers in their attempts to try new ideas. He felt himself able to "go with the flow" more easily rather than to be the controlling force behind the flow. Two male Principals commented on their increased awareness of how a parent might perceive the actions a Principal might take. One went further to support his growth toward a child-centered conceptualization of school.

In answer to question three, "What changes would you like to see in your style for the future?", three major response categories emerged. One category dealt with the financial climate. The suggestion was that if finances continued to occupy a major space in time on the job, then gloom and doom pessimism and dissatisfaction would override any style changes. One Principal said, "Finances impact style. Things will change if finances change. Change can't happen if money is an issue." One Principal was working on his confidence level and on reducing his anxiety level so that, as the "gloom and doom" era continues, he might be able to rise above it and thus help his staff and school to remain intact.

Principals interviewed expressed a desire 1) to improve dealings with staff by increasing communication channels; 2) to be able to work more often on educational issues with staff members; 3) to share decision making with staff; and 4) to get back to being with children more often. One woman mentioned the need to practice more assertive behavior in difficult circumstances. One of the men remarked that he was working on trying not to avoid teachers with whom he felt uncomfortable. Some Principals were happy with their style. One said, "I would like to spend more time with the children and teachers dealing with educational concerns. And I'd like to be wiser."

The next series of four questions dealt with what the researcher termed the "is" and the "ought" of the position.

The premise described speculated that Principals ought to be leaders yet more often than not are likely to be managers. The "is" of the position is what in reality is the day to day business of Principals. The "ought" of the position is what the literature describes as a leadership role. Are the two concepts of the position congruent or miles apart? The Principals interviewed were asked four questions, one asked for their opinion concerning the two premises, the next two asked them to comment on their perception of a gap between reality and concept, and the final question asked which each Principal followed, the "is" of the position or the "ought" of the position. Three Principals responded that there ought to be a balance between managerial tasks and leadership tasks. They felt that the Principal could be both a manager and a leader. The feeling was that the financial climate was keeping the leadership aspect from assuming a more important place in the day to day life of a Principal. Financial constraints forced Principals to work at more clerical tasks, to act as nurse in the absence of one, and to cover for teachers in order that they might meet with necessary staff for meetings. One Principal commented that bridging the gap between management and leadership was a constant struggle. She described the "is" of the job as "getting the paperwork done," the "ought" as the improvement of curriculum and instruction and staff development. Another Principal described her role as one necessitating that Principals be all things to all people, "and to be

truly good, they must be everything." One Principal stated that the "ought" required a change in thinking and a change in the perception of what is expected. For a Principal to be a leader, there will need to be a change in thinking about education. He felt that at this time the "is" of the job left a paper trail and that personnel issues were a major piece and portion of his day. Again, the state of the financial picture continues to force Principals to cover for the reduction of personnel. If this financial picture improves and if sufficient personnel are returned to their positions, then visionary Principals can resume their "jobs with excellence." All Principals interviewed felt that even if there was a balance between the managerial tasks and the leadership tasks, it is the leadership aspect of the role that is the most challenging intellectually and professionally. A final comment by a Principal,

> If you had asked me this (question) in January or February, I would have responded that I was an 'ought.' With all of the dealings with the budget/financial situation, answering questions about staffing, etc., from March on, I worked too much on the 'is.'"

The next three questions asked about change for the Principalship in the twenty-first century; what changes are foreseen, what obstacles will be in the way, how can these obstacles be overcome. Answers to these questions were varied. One Principal felt that the future of the Principalship would be in the hands of candidates hired, hired not for their educational knowledge, but for their

experience or degree background in business. No longer, he felt, are the politicians interested in educational purposes alone, but in education run on the same theories as business. This Principal felt that the general public does not understand the actual roles that teachers and Principals play in the lives of children. Publicizing these roles in real life and setting goals for education that strengthen programming are important issues for the future of public education.

Many Principals interviewed felt that the economy would have a great effect upon the future of the Principalship. The amount of money given to the public schools would determine whether the Principal and staff would be overburdened with tasks to compensate for lost personnel, or would have the money to create quality programs. The limitations of one person in the position of Principal continues to be an issue. Several Principals felt that "building-based management," the ability of each individual school within a district to govern itself, would increase as central administration personnel declined. "Building-based management" would involve staff in participatory management and school decision making, an involvement that would promote more intensive staff development and would cause staff to "buy into" the responsibilities of decision making. Such an evolution might enable the public sector's perception of educators, as those who only work 180 days a year for 6 1/2 hours a day, to change. A negative public

perception of educators today negatively impacts support of public education. Increasing the commitment and work ethic of educators and publicizing this better might have a positive impact.

The most radical of concepts outlined for the future by one Principal was to dissolve the Principalship and to empower staff members and parents. This Principal felt that there should be money given to schools to create new methods and to try new ideas. Removing the assumption of a leader in charge, namely the Principal, and increasing the partnership of staff and parents would be beneficial, he felt. A second Principal supported the notion of the need for staff to gain more positive status in their leadership skills. This Principal viewed her future as a team leader and as a facilitator for change rather than as the sole leader in charge. Both Principals felt that a major obstacle was staff, itself, with their insecurities, and the teachers' union which, they felt, was a supporter of the status quo. In summation, one Principal felt that we should get rid of, "...the 'Father Knows Best' syndrome inherent in the male domination of school Principals."

Question seven asked for comments on the formal and informal preparation for the Principalship. Most agreed that formal preparation of Principals was not adequate. One Principal called the present formal preparation "dreadful." Two Principals cited the developing "Aspiring Principals'

Program" that first formed in several districts and is now in place on a larger scale supported by the Massachusetts Elementary School Principal's Association (MESPA). Most Principals interviewed felt that new and aspiring Principals are not given the support needed to survive year one or to enter the position. The decline of Assistant Principal positions, due to budget constraints, especially in Massachusetts, leaves a gap for apprenticeship training. Many cited the mentorship, apprenticeship route as the best vehicle to prepare for the realities of the position. Here, again, the issue of funding is applicable. Allowing individuals to train on the job or opening up more opportunities for Assistant Principal positions would require funding. In this era of funding cutbacks, the position of Assistant Principal is one of the first to be eliminated.

Only one Principal praised her formal preparation for the Principalship. Her training was completed three years ago. She received a Masters in Educational Management with an internship as an added component. This preparation echoes the comment made by one Principal in an earlier question who felt that business interests would overtake educational interests in hiring practices. One other Principal advised that more practical management courses be required to help with the initial phases of the first year on the job. The Principal who received this preparation in management felt that it had provided her with the necessary

management expertise and that she was now learning the leadership role on the job. Most of the Principals who had been in the Principal position for at least ten years received their training on the job. They had taken one three credit course which was the only additional requirement other than three years of successful teaching in the Commonwealth of Massachusetts. These Principals felt that the most important aspect of preparation was on the job training coupled with a "frame of mind" conducive to the role. Some had taken additional courses later on in early childhood education and felt that these were the most important as they aided Principals in their understanding of children. A final comment by one Principal was that she believed that there is a "principal personality" and that a large portion of the job is common sense. She believed that preparation should focus on the ability to facilitate the change process.

Almost all those interviewed agreed on the importance of the three aspects of question eight: involving staff and community in the life of the school, the importance of the image that the Principal projects, Principals being leaders of leaders. Almost all interviewed rated each of these three as Most Important on a scale of Most Important, Some of the Time, Not at all. A breakdown of responses is provided in the Appendix C.

Question nine and ten dealt with change that each felt was inevitable, but not necessarily in the best interest of

the Principal, and change that would be necessary in the future to aid the positive growth of the Principalship. The first part was answered in two major ways. Principals were concerned about the budget crises which might lead to less time with children, and more time with management issues and paper work. Many feared the lack of funds and the increasing responsibilities of dealing with deteriorating buildings, inadequate staffing, and increased enrollment. Some even feared the possible addition of fund raiser to the role of Principal in order to support programs. The increased responsibilities might destroy the true meaning of "site-based management." Instead of decision making and responsibility shifting to the school site, it might mean the opportunity to dump everything onto the school. Competition with the private sector was also seen as a negative change. Competition for students was seen as a demeaning and anti-educational thrust designed to increase competition and yet do very little to improve education.

The change seen as positive for the future was one designed to encourage an atmosphere open for risk taking and innovation, the creation of understanding of "site-based management," opportunities for continuing education and mentoring for professionals, adding support staff, and money to realize these goals. One Principal felt that a positive step would be to mandate a certain number of students in each elementary school building in order to control student/teacher ratio and to maintain quality education.

Finally, there was a plea for national support of public education, support that provides more than political bandaids, support that really gets to the issue of quality education.

As difficult as times are for professionals in public education, every Principal interviewed responded positively to the question "If you were given the opportunity to choose professions again, would you choose the Principalship?" Responses ranged from, "Yes, I love it!," "Absolutely, greatest position in the world," "I find it fulfilling, I enjoy the responsibility and the ability to enact change," "Absolutely, a time of the most growth I have ever experienced- I love It!" "Yes! A way to affect children," "Yes, I just love what I'm doing, I can see the whole plan, I can facilitate good ideas and make things better, and I am not removed from children," to positive feelings with some frustration. The frustration refers to the knowledge that this position is a vitally important one to education yet the length of time one can remain effective is unclear given the myriad of responsibilities that take Principals away from what they perceive to be their primary roles. The threats to public education are of great concern. The lack of public respect is devastating. These concerns are not enough to remove these individuals from the position, however.

Question 12 involved a series of statements which principals were to individually rate Important, Not so

important, Not necessary. The main question was, "How important are the following for the future of excellence in education?" All items received the response of "Important" except for three items which two Principals rated as "Not so important." These two items involved the principles of group dynamics and facilitation skills and the assurance that a multi-cultural, non-sexist, developmentally appropriate program be provided for all students, and professional development. The reason for the category "Not so important" for these two Principals was that, relative to the other items being considered, these two were not as important. A breakdown of responses is provided in Appendix C.

Question 13 referred to the March survey. Several issues emerged from the survey as being important. Interviewed Principals were asked to rate these issues in reference to future importance. Answers varied, but most considered all the items important. In response to questions 12 and 13, one Principal suggested that the number of important items really highlighted the magnitude of the job. Question 13 covered items such as the importance of Principals modelling instruction, providing staff with time to share workshop and conference ideas, providing time for colleagues to discuss shared challenges, offering an opportunity for staff to be included in the interview process for new teachers, providing staff training in working with parents, developing communication channels for

minority groups to share concerns, and organizing a student council.

Question 14 asked Principals to cite the professional growth opportunities receiving their highest priority. Each Principal rated the provided list according to his/her needs. The most frequently cited priorities were in the area of leadership, curriculum, evaluation and communication. A breakdown of responses is provided in Appendix C.

The final question asked Principals to consider the role that gender might play in future hiring, images of success, and effectiveness as a school leader. One Principal felt that although gender continues to be a factor in hiring, once hired, the gender lines are blurred. Others felt that women would continue to fill more positions of leadership as older men retired. One Principal felt that minority hiring should be a crucial factor in future hiring. He also felt that there should be a balance of male and female leaders as each had a special "aura," each brought an important aspect of reality to a school. Two Principals felt that women would have a slight advantage in future hiring. Women, they felt, were beginning to be perceived as harder working and brighter, in general, than the men who have occupied the Principalship for years. One woman, who felt that more women were needed in the Principalship, felt that they would have to work on their images so that the "try to please everyone" mode is not an issue. One woman

felt that women are still not viewed on an equal basis with men. They are still not as acceptable in some communities, although some are still hired as "tokens." Most Principals interviewed felt that gender and race in future hiring ought to be invisible. The best candidate ought to be hired.

The interview process was an opportunity to hear the Principal's view on issues. What the literature suggests does not always run parallel to what "on the job" Principals suggest. In summation, the Principals interviewed form a very small sample of the population of all the nation's Principals, even those within the Commonwealth of Massachusetts. With this in mind, however, these individuals are diverse in experience, types of schools they represent, background, age, and gender. These individuals are proud of their contributions to education, love their jobs, have children as their first priority, and hold this priority above politics. Their frustrations are voiced loudly and clearly and they are very much unified in their concern over money issues to fund programs for students and staff. Their knowledge of education is sound and their concerns for the future of their profession are worth paying heed to if, in fact, public education is to survive.

In support of Principals the following chart illustrates the commitment they have to various dimensions of their jobs as researched by Smith and Andrews (1989).

PERCENTAGE OF TIME PRINCIPALS DEVOTE TO MAJOR DIMENSIONS OF THEIR JOBS

Job Dimensions	Average Instructional Leaders	Strong Instructional Leaders
Educational Improvement	27	41
School-Community Relations	6	7
Student Services and Activities	28	18
Building Management and Operations	39	34
Average Hours Per Day	10+	10.75+

(Smith & Andrews, 1989: 29)

6.7 Conclusions

Each year nearly 11,000 people in the United States become school Principals for the first time. A "shock of entry" is common among rookie Principals. One common complaint among the bewildered is, "This job isn't at all what I expected." The physically isolating position of the Principal, the volume of demands, details, and decisions in the Principalship, the time crunch of the fragmented day, all seem overwhelming at first. The Principalship is a demanding job, one that, if it continues to operate as such may be doomed to the image of a "chicken running around with its head cut off," a fire fighter without the tools (Anderson, 1991).

The Principalship is an increasingly important position in the school district. As "site-based management" takes hold, the opportunities for restructuring the nature of

leadership has more potential. "Site-based management," which describes a method for decentralizing education and focussing upon the individual school as the unit of decision making, is a key to sharing leadership (Michaels, 1988). The Principal, if he/she is truly a leader of leaders, does not have to do the job alone. Sharing the responsibilities may take many forms, such as: 1) employing an Assistant Principal to share the management and leadership functions; 2) setting up a faculty council to share decision making; or 3) developing the idea of "lead" teachers who work collaboratively with colleagues and Principals at the local school level (Lieberman, 1988).

Many reform opportunities have been raised for discussion. Other reform suggestions might be appropriate for further research. For example, nowhere is it written that it is absolutely necessary for there to be one Principal. Perhaps teaming among two or three within a building would be advantageous. While the cost of this could be high, the use of time might be shared with teaching responsibilities. Another idea which might merit exploration is having the staff and Principal work during the summer months, giving adequate time to planning and decision making. This might not only increase efficiency, but might also help legitimize the profession in the public's eyes as a year round profession rather than a ten-month job. Research into these two ideas would offer two additional opportunities to visualize the future. Support

for these two suggestions has not been found among the documents explored by this researcher, to date.

Certainly, there are many reform measures necessary to implement in public education. However, there are possibilities to be developed that are not even on the drawing boards. Time to pursue such ideas is rarely given. Money is tied to opportunity and as such is never enough when the priorities of this nation are unclear as applied to education. The Principalship will survive into the twenty-first century. Concerns for the future are not for the survival of the position of the Principalship, itself, but for how it will survive, and whether it will survive as it exists now, a struggle to keep head above water, or whether it can seek a position of true leadership. True leadership requires intense understanding of what will be needed by students to succeed in the next century, what the information age will require, and what will be necessary to instill in the public educational system. Further, change itself will need to be understood. The process of change is a complicated matter. If this process is not understood, the educational system is doomed to run in circles, one year this idea, next year another, leading to a sense of distrust by the public it serves. This process of changing roles and responsibilities, and the way this nation conceptualizes public education will stir up debate. Change will require a disturbance of some deeply rooted beliefs, including "that is the way things are" notions. It will take vision and

courage to break clear of these beliefs and to engage this nation in really getting down to the business of changing the way schools are organized. Putting the rhetoric away and attending to the task of change will take time and pain. Reform movements are born out of crises. There is, however, the potential to change (Lieberman, 1988).

Further research is needed to conceptualize new notions of educational organization. The ability to creatively think of new ways to educate children for the next century necessitates time and the ability to step away from the known into the unknown. Preparation for the Principalship might continue to require close examination. Other issues for future research include gender bias in administration hiring, and understanding adult development in regard to staff needs. These suggestions do not cover the gamut of areas open to future research but serve only to highlight several that appear evident from this research on the evolution of the Principalship. The Principalship has an opportunity to be instrumentally involved in the changing of the educational system. The notion of leadership, the responsibilities of educating, the old notions of hierarchy, all are in need of reform as suggested by current literature. The study of the evolution of the Principalship mirrors the study of the history of public education. History provides a running record of the "way we do things around here." Yet, history does not hold us to the past,

but enables us to learn and understand and head toward the future.

A leader is best
When people barely know that he exists,
Not so good when people obey and acclaim him,
Worst when they despise him.
"Fail to honor people,
They fail to honor you";
But of a good leader, who talks little,
When his work is done, his aim fulfilled,
They will all say, "We did this ourselves."
(Lao Tzu)

APPENDIX A

SHADOWING ROLAND BARTH

Shadowing Roland Barth on April 29

7:40 a.m.	One of the Angier School teachers gave Roland a ride to school after Roland had left his car at a garage to be repaired. Car conversation concerned basically non-school matters.
8:00-8:10	Stopped in teachers' room to exchange social pleasantries and to discuss some specific matters with individual teachers. At this time (and several times later in the day), Roland tried to allay the concerns of many teachers over the possibility that three first-year teachers may be dismissed as a result of staff cuts. He wanted to convey his belief that the list of teachers-to-be-cut which was published in a local newssheet misrepresented the situation. He feels confident that the three teachers in question will be on the staff next year.
8:15-8:45	Went over the day's calendar in his office. Began to go through huge pile of correspondence. Many letters concerned parental desires for their child's placement for the coming school year. Several interruptions by staff: custodian needs info on upcoming program; teacher comes in to discuss student teacher's capability in taking over a class during her absence. Roland assures the regular teacher that he and the teacher aide will also be around to lend some help if the student teacher runs into any trouble. A prospective teacher calls to set up an interview.
8:45	Art teacher brings in student who has been misbehaving in class. This meeting and others like it take place only after Roland has previously discussed the situation with the teacher. The student is told that she will be sent to the office to spend the rest of the period there if she acts up again. (Later in the morning, the art teacher mentioned to Roland how well-behaved the girl had been today.)
8:50	A student teacher supervisor from a nearby university stops by to chat.

8:55	Goes down the hall to see teacher about a child whose mother has agreed to seek psychological counseling. Roland and the teacher agree that the school and the parents are finally beginning to act cooperatively.
9:00-10:00	Attacks correspondence pile for a few minutes. Begins a series of phone calls regarding a proposal to hire another custodian in order to keep the school open later for community affairs, and the complaint of a parent about a bra-less teacher. For this last situation, Roland called the superintendent's office to find out what existing policy is and to clue them in on the situation. Roland decides that he will ask the parent to explain how the teacher's dress is affecting her child's learning.
10:00-10:10	Peggy, the combination teacher's aide-secretary-typist comes in with three copies of a review of a book on open education which Roland had written for a magazine. He dictates a letter to the magazine's editor and then begins to proofread the review.
10:10-11:00	A prospective parent comes in to discuss enrolling her two sons. She has brought along the children's present teacher. The parent is very concerned about finding the optimal learning environment for her sons. Roland discusses the school's placement policy and accepts the parent's concern with statements like, "Well, it sounds as though the question is..." He calls in the school's psychologist to discuss placement. He recognizes that he might not be able to satisfy every demand of the parent, but the parent seems to recognize that perhaps she is asking too much. The meeting ends with the appearance that the parent will enroll her children.
11:00-11:30	Two parents from another school system come to talk to Roland about one of the Angier School teachers who is a finalist in a principal search. The teacher in question, however, barely is mentioned. The parents explore Roland's philosophy and practices and complain about the poor situation in their own school. As the parents leave, Roland mentions the great faith he has in the

	teacher who has applied for the principal's position.
11:30-12:15 p.m.	Several meetings between Roland, the psychologist, and some teachers regarding the progress and future placement of several students.
12:15-1:00	Teacher aide- typist comes in to help prepare materials for the faculty meeting. Roland sounds her out on a few of the items which will come up at the meeting that afternoon.
1:00-1:35	Secretary brings in a school lunch. A steady stream of teachers enters with information, discipline problems, and requests.
1:40	Roland begins faculty meeting in the library. Except for some announcements, Roland each week gives responsibility for conducting the meeting to some faculty committee or group. Today's workshop was on race awareness. Almost all faculty members contributed freely and Roland was treated as a member, not as the leader, at least during this situation.
3:10	Roland made several announcements, all of which stressed his desire to foster collaborative action among the faculty. The last few minutes were devoted to details of an upcoming fire drill which another teacher explained.
3:30-4:45	Roland meets with a number of parents and teachers. He tries to follow through on important correspondence. He spends the last half-hour counseling a former teacher. He is then given a ride back to the garage to pick up his car.

APPENDIX B

PRINCIPAL SURVEY FORM WITH SUMMARY OF RESPONSES

Dear Colleague,

I would appreciate your assistance. As an Elementary School Principal of five years, I am writing a Doctoral Dissertation citing the evolution of the Elementary School Principalship from the mid-Nineteenth Century to the present with a prediction of its role in the Twenty-First Century.

I need as much feedback as possible from current Elementary School Principals by mid-April describing responsibilities today. I would greatly appreciate a few moments of your time to respond to the attached questions.

In advance, I thank you very much.

Sincerely,

Roseli Weiss
Principal-Fisher School
Walpole

THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALSHIP
JOB ANALYSIS

Below you will find tasks that represent many of the possible activities expected of Elementary School Principals. Please use the following key to represent the tasks that you presently undertake, the tasks that you share with others, the tasks that you delegate to others, the tasks that you do not currently undertake, and the tasks that you wish to undertake at some future time.

Please comment on any items on the lines provided.

KEY

Tasks you presently undertake..... P
Tasks you share with others..... S
Tasks you delegate to others..... D
Tasks you do not undertake..... N
Tasks you wish to undertake at some future time.. F

BIOGRAPHICAL DATA

Name _____ Date _____

School/Town _____ Grade Levels_____

Male __ Female __ Years of Experience as a Principal _____ Age _____

Do you have an Assistant Principal? Yes ____ No ____

To whom would you delegate tasks? _____

_____

Educational Program Improvement

1. Provision for inservice training of teachers to increase performance effectiveness. _____

Responses:	P	S	D	N	F
	31%	54%	6%	6%	3%

2. Planning, developing, and implementing a process for teacher and parent involvement in determining curriculum goals and objectives. ____

Responses:	P	S	D	N	F
	20%	57%	2%	17%	4%

3. Assignment of professional staff to classes. ____

Responses:	P	S	D	N	F
	66%	32%	--	2%	--

4. Encouragement of and aid to staff for development of innovative teaching methods. ____

Responses:	P	S	D	N	F
	46%	54%	--	--	--

5. Organization of programs to evaluate student competency.__

Responses:	P	S	D	N	F
	20%	64%	9%	7%	--

6. Assistance in helping staff members set professional goals. ____

Responses:	P	S	D	N	F
	73%	23%	2%	2%	--

7. Determination of the extent to which staff meet curriculum goals and objectives. ____

Responses:	P	S	D	N	F
	58%	35%	7%	--	--

8. Communication with other Principals or district personnel to coordinate educational programs across schools. ____

Responses:	P	S	D	N	F
	45%	47%	3%	5%	

9. Definition of and implementation of the objectives and standards for an effective library or media center. ____

Responses:	P	S	D	N	F
	11%	54%	23%	9%	3%

10. Encouragement of staff to search for and to implement new programs. ____

Responses:	P	S	D	N	F
	42%	56%	2%	--	--

11. Review of instructional materials (Ex. books, kits, equipment, etc.) for the school. ____

Responses:	P	S	D	N	F
	13%	64%	21%	2%	--

12. Evaluation of curriculum in terms of objectives set by the school system. ____

Responses:	P	S	D	N	F
	23%	63%	6%	5%	3%

13. Communication with school personnel regarding the various roles of resource personnel (nurse, resource teachers, psychologist, etc.). ____

Responses:	P	S	D	N	F
	35%	63%	2%	--	--

14. Encouragement of staff to attend conferences, to join professional organizations, to attend educational classes, etc. ____

Responses:	P	S	D	N	F
	68%	28%	--	2%	2%

15. Provision for staff to share information and ideas received from professional workshops or associations. ____

Responses:	P	S	D	N	F
	50%	36%	7%	2%	5%

16. Provision for opportunities to meet with staff or staff representatives to discuss faculty concerns. ____

Responses:	P	S	D	N	F
	77%	21%	2%	--	--

17. Instruction of classes to serve as a model to staff. ____

Responses:	P	S	D	N	F
	25%	28%	10%	25%	17%

18. Participation in meetings with colleagues to discuss shared problems, solutions, or new developments in education. ____

Responses:	P	S	D	N	F
	48%	38%	3%	2%	9%

Please comment about any of the items in this section.
Please LIST the item number for reference:

<u>Personnel Selection and Evaluation</u>

1. Recruitment of applicants for staff positions. ____

Responses:	P	S	D	N	F
	30%	46%	3%	19%	2%

2. Provision for performance feedback to staff. ____

Responses:	P	S	D	N	F
	83%	17%	--	--	--

3. Provision for performance feedback to custodial, secretarial, and other support staff. ____

Responses:	P	S	D	N	F
	72%	26%	--	2%	--

4. Involvement of current staff in the selection of new staff members for the school. ____

Responses:	P	S	D	N	F
	34%	37%	--	26%	3%

5. The interview process to select new personnel for the school. ____

Responses:	P	S	D	N	F
	29%	64%	--	5%	2%

6. Observation of a teacher's classroom performance for the purpose of evaluation and feedback to the teacher. ____

Responses:	P	S	D	N	F
	78%	22%	--	--	--

7. Supervision of the guidance counselor. ____

Responses:	P	S	D	N	F
	50%	44%	2%	4%	--

Please comment about any of the items in this section.
Please LIST item number for reference:

Community Relations

1. Organization of community members to lobby support for programs. ____

Responses:	P	S	D	N	F
	20%	43%	4%	29%	4%

2. Communication with the public concerning rationale for various school programs. ____

Responses:	P	S	D	N	F
	33%	55%	3%	7%	2%

3. Interpretation of the school's curriculum and activities for parents. ____

Responses:	P	S	D	N	F
	41%	55%	2%	--	2%

4. Provision for staff training in working with parents. ____

Responses:	P	S	D	N	F
	29%	43%	2%	13%	13%

5. Organization and contribution to a school newsletter for parents or the public to keep them informed of school policies and activities. _____

Responses:	P	S	D	N	F
	37%	56%	5%	--	2%

6. Presentation of orientation sessions for parents new to school. ____

Responses:	P	S	D	N	F
	40%	52%	8%	--	--

7. Communication with a parent advisory group. ____

Responses:	P	S	D	N	F
	64%	30%	2%	2%	2%

8. Development of relationships with local media to share school activities. ____

Responses:	P	S	D	N	F
	31%	52%	12%	5%	--

9. Development of communication channels for minorities to share concerns. ____

Responses:	P	S	D	N	F
	18%	30%	6%	34%	12%

10. Provision of opportunities for staff and community groups to discuss issues. ____

Responses:	P	S	D	N	F
	24%	45%	--	22%	9%

11. Communication to parents and community that the school is open for visitation and volunteerism in classes. ____

Responses:	P	S	D	N	F
	45%	50%	3%	2%	--

12. Information to parents of student disciplinary action. ____

Responses:	P	S	D	N	F
	57%	41%	2%	--	--

13. Information to parents and community when change or innovative activities are implemented. ____

Responses:	P	S	D	N	F
	47%	51%	2%	--	--

Please comment about any of the items in this section.
Please LIST item number for reference:

School Management

1. Supervision of job performance for custodial, secretarial, and other support staff. ____

Responses:	P	S	D	N	F
	57%	38%	2%	3%	--

2. Information to the school district on cleanliness and maintenance of the building. ____

Responses:	P	S	D	N	F
	48%	40%	5%	5%	2%

3. Monitoring the maintenance of building. ____

Responses:	P	S	D	N	F
	41%	55%	2%	2%	--

4. Handling of requests for information, paperwork, and annual reports, etc. from central office. ____

Responses:	P	S	D	N	F
	55%	34%	11%	--	--

5. Arrangement for informing parents of a child's tardiness or absence. ____

Responses:	P	S	D	N	F
	29%	35%	34%	2%	--

6. Establishment of school pride. ____

Responses:	P	S	D	N	F
	25%	69%	6%	--	--

7. Organization of cafeteria schedule. ____

Responses:	P	S	D	N	F.
	63%	25%	19%	2%	--

8. Submission of requests for building or classroom maintenance to the proper source. ____

Responses:	P	S	D	N	F
	47%	41%	12%	--	--

9. In charge of building budget. ____

Responses:	P	S	D	N	F
	72%	26%	2%	--	--

10. Preparation of a faculty handbook. ____

Responses:	P	S	D	N	F
	50%	34%	5%	6%	5%

Preparation of a parent handbook. ____

Responses:	P	S	D	N	F
	34%	54%	5%	4%	3%

11. Monitor of student records- academic, attendance, medical, etc. ____

Responses:	P	S	D	N	F
	19%	54%	27%	--	--

12. Development of procedures for an efficient office routine. ____

Responses:	P	S	D	N	F
	34%	45%	21%	--	--

13. Preparation of building budget, involving staff and/or community in that process. ____

Responses:	P	S	D	N	F
	43%	50%	--	5%	2%

14. Organization of class schedules. ____

Responses:	P	S	D	N	F
	49%	39%	10%	--	2%

15. Organization of fire drills. ____

Responses:	P	S	D	N	F
	60%	28%	10%	--	2%

16. Supervision of ordering and distribution of school supplies. ____

Responses:	P	S	D	N	F
	38%	38%	24%	--	--

Please comment about any of the items in this section.
Please LIST item number for reference:

<u>Student Services</u>

1. Organization of student discipline procedures. ____

Responses:	P	S	D	N	F
	32%	65%	3%	--	--

2. Production of student handbook. ____

Responses:	P	S	D	N	F
	19%	46%	9%	19%	7%

3. Discussion with staff concerning student discipline problems. ____

Responses:	P	S	D	N	F
	46%	54%	--	--	--

4. Involvement of staff in implementation of instructional programs for students who do not pass minimal competency tests. ____

Responses:	P	S	D	N	F
	29%	66%	3%	2%	--

5. Organization of student council. ____

Responses:	P	S	D	N	F
	8%	19%	12%	45%	16%

6. Involvement of staff in discussion of challenges relating to students. ____

Responses:	P	S	D	N	F
	38%	58%	2%	2%	--

Please comment about any of the items in this section.
Please LIST item number for reference:

<u>Supervision of Students</u>

1. Supervision of the cafeteria during lunch time. ____

Responses:	P	S	D	N	F
	14%	33%	48%	5%	--

2. Opportunity to counsel staff, students, and support personnel on personal problems or behavioral issues. ____

Responses:	P	S	D	N	F
	40%	57%	3%	--	--

3. Provision for resources and/or training to help staff recognize and deal with student behavioral issues. ____

Responses:	P	S	D	N	F
	25%	67%	3%	3%	2%

4. Supervision of student transportation to and from school. ____

Responses:	P	S	D	N	F
	25%	46%	20%	9%	--

5. Supervision of field trip transportation. ____

Responses:	P	S	D	N	F
	18%	25%	52%	5%	--

Authorization for and supervision of field trips. ____

Responses:	P	S	D	N	F
	38%	32%	28%	2%	--

6. Organization of assemblies and cultural productions. ____

Responses:	P	S	D	N	F
	22%	68%	8%	2%	--

Please comment about any of the items in this section. Please LIST item number for reference:

District, state, and federal coordination of reports

1. Establishment of communication lines with other principals in the district. ____

Responses:	P	S	D	N	F
	57%	30%	2%	9%	2%

2. Authorship of grant proposals to support development of school programs. ____

Responses:	P	S	D	N	F
	18%	42%	8%	27%	5%

3. Attendance and input at system-wide budget meetings. ____

Responses:	P	S	D	N	F
	63%	31%	2%	4%	--

4. Membership on system-wide curriculum and policy committees. ____

Responses:	P	S	D	N	F
	51%	39%	5%	5%	--

5. Coordination of testing programs required by state or school system. ____

Responses:	P	S	D	N	F
	39%	39%	18%	4%	--

6. Defense of building budget to school committee or system personnel. ____

Responses:	P	S	D	N	F
	52%	33%	4%	11%	--

Please comment about any line item in this section. Please LIST item number for reference:

Professional Preparation

1. Continuous updating of knowledge of union-management contracts. ____

Responses:	P	S	D	N	F
	41%	35%	4%	20%	--

2. Continuous updating of knowledge in educational techniques and their affects on staff, students, and the community. ____

Responses:	P	S	D	N	
	53%	45%	2%	--	--

3. Participation in professional growth activities; conferences, professional meetings, courses, etc. ____

Responses:	P	S	D	N	F
	67%	31%	2%	--	--

Please comment about any of the items in this section.
Please LIST item number for reference:

APPENDIX C

PRINCIPAL INTERVIEW FORM WITH SUMMARY OF RESPONSES

THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALSHIP INTERVIEW

Name_____

School_____

Town_____

1. How would you describe your leadership style?

2. What has changed about your style since you became a Principal?

3. What changes would you like to see in your style for the future?

4. How do you feel about the statement, "Principals ought to be leaders; more likely they are managers." (The Public School Administrator 1990 Promotional Issue)

5. How true is the following statement, "The reality is that there is a huge gap between what the role of the Principal is supposed to be and what it actually is. For Principals, there are two worlds: the world of "is" and the world of "ought."

5a. What do you perceive to be the "is" of the job and the "ought" of the job?

5b. Are you a follower of the "is" or the "ought"?

6. What changes do you see happening for the position in the Twenty-first Century?

6a. What major obstacles do you believe stand in the way of these changes?

6b. How, in your view, can these obstacles be overcome?

7. Please comment on the formal and informal preparation for the Principalship. Do you see changes necessary? What changes?

8. Rate the following in reference to the future: <u>Most of the time</u>, <u>some of the time</u>, <u>not at all</u>

8a. The proficient Principal will involve both the staff and the community in a variety of school activities _____

Responses:
Most of the time: 10
Some of the time: 0
Not at all: 0

8b. The image the Principal will project forms the dominant perception of the school by students, staff, parents, and the community _____

Responses:
Most of the time: 6
Some of the time: 4
Not at all: 0

8c. Proficient Principals will recognize that they must be leaders of leaders _____

Responses:
Most of the time: 10
Some of the time: 0
Not at all: 0

9. What one change do you see as inevitable, but not necessarily in the best interest of the Principalship, for the Twenty-first Century?

10. What one change would you see necessary in order that the Principalship grow positively in the Twenty-first Century?

11. If you were given the opportunity to choose professions again, would you choose the Principalship? Why or why not?

12. How important are the following for the future of excellence in education? Important, not so important, not necessary.

12a. Encourage staff participation in professional development activities _____

Responses:

Important:	10
Not so important:	0
Not necessary:	0

12b. Engage in continuing personal and professional development_____

Responses:

Important:	9
Not so important:	1
Not necessary:	0

12c. Set high expectations for students, staff, parents, and self_____

Responses:

Important:	10
Not so important:	0
Not necessary:	0

12d. Help teachers understand and apply teaching styles that complement the varied learning styles of students

Responses:

Important:	10
Not so important:	0
Not necessary:	0

12e. Apply principles of child growth and development from Pre-k-12

Responses:

Important:	10
Not so important:	0
Not necessary:	0

12f. Articulate effective classroom management and planning processes

Responses:

Important:	10
Not so important:	0
Not necessary:	0

12g. Encourage staff input in continual review of curriculum scope, sequence, and content

Responses:

Important:	10
Not so important:	0
Not necessary:	0

12h. Assure that a multicultural, nonsexist, and developmentally appropriate program is provided for all students

Responses:

Important:	9
Not so important:	1
Not necessary:	0

12i. Apply the principles of group dynamics and facilitation skills

Responses:

Important:	9
Not so important:	1
Not necessary:	0

12j. Involve staff, parents, students and community in identifying goals_____

Responses:

Important:	10
Not so important:	0
Not necessary:	0

12k. Be aware of and utilize the existing school culture and climate _____

Responses:

Important:	10
Not so important:	0
Not necessary:	0

13. The survey responses identified some issues for future consideration. How do you perceive the importance of these issues in relation to your Principalship?

13a. Provision for staff to share information and ideas received from workshops, conferences, or associations.

13b. Instruction by the Principal of classes to serve as a model to staff.

13c. Meetings with colleagues to discuss shared problems, solutions, or new developments in education.

13d. The interview process to select new personnel for the school.

13e. Provision for staff training in working with parents.

13f. Development of communication channels for minorities to share concerns.

13g. Opportunity for staff and community groups to discuss issues.

13h. Organization of a student council.

14. What are some professional growth activities that you would like to undertake in the future? Which of the following do you identify as your highest priority for growth?

a. Leadership behavior
b. Communication
c. Curriculum
d. Evaluation
e. Organizational Management
f. Fiscal Management
g. Other

Responses:

	1st priority	2nd priority	3rd priority
Leadership behavior:	6	0	1
Communication:	2	1	1
Curriculum:	3	3	0
Evaluation:	1	0	2
Organizational Management:	0	1	0
Fiscal Management:	0	0	0
Other:	0	0	0

15. What role do think the gender of a Principal candidate will play in future hiring opportunities, images of success, or effectiveness as a school leader?

PRINCIPALS INTERVIEWED

Joanne Benton	Greenlodge School	Dedham
Sue Evans	Boyden School	Walpole
Richard Fitzpatrick	Wheelock School	Medfield
Steve Fortin	Old Post Road School	Walpole
Jerry Guy	Barnstable/ West Barnstable School	Barnstable
Mary Lou Hobson	Sippican School	Marion
Judith Hunt	Florence Roche School	Groton
Annette Packard	Clara Macy School	Bellingham
Mike Ward	Mullen Hall School	Falmouth
Anne Whittredge	Broadmeadow School	Needham

APPENDIX D

WHAT'S MOST HELPFUL TO PRINCIPALS

What's Most Helpful to Principals

Following are the results of some of the questions put to superintendents and principals in separate surveys for this Critical Issues Report:

Q. To Principals:

What has been particularly helpful to you in upgrading the skills you need to be an effective principal?

A. (By frequency of responses):

1. Travel to conferences and workshops
2. Inservice training
3. College courses
4. Contact with superintendent

A. To Principals:

What one thing could superintendents do to help principals perform more effectively?

A. (By frequency of responses):

1. Better communications
2. More support
3. More authority
4. More involvement of principals in setting goals
5. More involvement of principals in decision making

Q. To Superintendents:

What single effort in your district has resulted in the greatest improvement in the effectiveness of school principals?

A. (By frequency of responses):

1. Inservice training
2. Evaluation
3. Better communications
4. Management teams
5. Supporting principals
6. Holding principals accountable

Q. To Superintendents:

What tips would you give for upgrading the skills of principals that might be helpful to other school districts?

A. (By frequency of responses):

1. Inservice training
2. Set goals with principals and hold them accountable
3. Engage in cooperative planning with principals
4. Good communications with principals
5. Evaluation

Source: McCurdy, J. The Role of the Principal in Effective School Problems and Solutions. American Association of School Administrators, p. 61.

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